Niśvāsamukhatattvasamhitā

A Preface to the Earliest Surviving Saiva Tantra

(on non-Tantric Śaivism at the Dawn of the Mantramārga)

Critical Edition, with Introduction & Annotated Translation and an Appendix Containing Śivadharmasaṅgraha 5–9

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THE EARLY TANTRA SERIES

Tantric scriptures form the basis of almost all the various theistic schools of theology and ritual in post-Vedic India, as well as of a major strand of Buddhism (Vajrayāna). Among these schools, those centred on the Hindu deities Śiva and Viṣṇu spread well beyond the Indian subcontinent to Kambuja (Cambodia/Laos/Thailand), Champa (Vietnam) and Indonesia, while Buddhist tantrism quickly became pan-Asian.

With this mini-series, launched within the 'Collection Indologie', we are releasing some of the fruits of a Franco-German project funded from 2008 to 2011 by the Agence Nationale pour la Recherche and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft. The series takes its name from the project's title: 'Early Tantra: Discovering the interrelationships and common ritual syntax of the Śaiva, Buddhist, Vaiṣṇava and Saura traditions'. Our aim was to study the interrelationships between the tantric traditions on the basis of fundamental source-material, which we would edit and publish for the first time. For this we made use of some of the exceptionally rich manuscript resources gathered in the twentieth century and studied by German and French research institutes at opposite poles of the sub-continent.

In recent centuries, the Tamil-speaking South is the only area where a vast corpus of Sanskrit texts of what was long the dominant school of tantric Śaivism continued being copied and so transmitted to the present day. So when, in 1956, Jean Filliozat secured a foothold in Pondicherry for French indological research, he created an ideal institutional base for the study of a forgotten chapter in the religious history of Asia. Gradually, the largest specialised manuscript collection of texts relating to the Śaiva Siddhānta was amassed, recognised in 2005 by UNESCO as a "Memory of the World" collection: The Śaiva Manuscripts of Pondicherry.

At the other end of the subcontinent, the cool climate of Nepal has preserved ancient manuscripts of texts of virtually every branch of Indian learning. Much of the early history of tantrism is thus preserved in the vast archive of Nepalese manuscripts microfilmed over more than three decades by the Nepal-German Manuscript Preservation Project (NGMPP), then partly catalogued by the Nepalese German Manuscript Cataloguing Project (NGMCP), run from Hamburg and from the NGMCP's base in Kathmandu, the Nepal Research Centre (NRC). One Nepalese treasure, also included, in 2013, in UNESCO's register, formed the cornerstone of our project: the ninth-century manuscript of the Niśvāsatattvasamhitā.

The Early Tantra Series is not a closed collection: as well as the editions and translations promised as part of the 'Early Tantra' project, studies of numerous related works were inspired or further advanced during the project's workshops.

TO DIWAKAR ACHARYA

GURU AND FRIEND

Collection Indologie 145 Early Tantra Series 6

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EDITED BY

NIRAJAN KAFLE

with a foreword by Dominic Goodall

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- © École française d'Extrême-Orient, 2020 (ISBN 978 2 85539 240 0)
- © Department of Indian and Tibetan Studies, Asien-Afrika-Institut, Universität Hamburg

Typeset by Nirajan KAFLE in Latin Modern and Velthuis' Devanāgarī, using EDMAC, TEX and XAIATEX.

Cover design: Ink & Paper, Pondicherry.

Cover photo by Andrey Klebanov: detail of a coverboard from a Nepalese palmleaf manuscript of the Śivadharma held in the National Archives, Kathmandu, NGMPP B 7/3, dated to 1170 CE, showing a linga of fire flanked by Brahmā and Viṣṇu.

Printed at the Sri Aurobindo Ashram Press, Pondicherry.

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FOREWORD

I am delighted to have been asked by Nirajan KAFLE to furnish a foreword to this precious edition and translation of a text of very great interest for the history of Śaivism.

When Nirajan KAFLE first came to Pondicherry in 2007, at the suggestion of Diwakar ACHARYA, it was to participate in reading-sessions and to help preparing for the first workshop on the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā, an event that Alexis Sanderson's presence made particularly inspiring to many, and that encouraged Harunaga Isaacson and myself to launch the Franco-German 'Early Tantra' Project. Nirajan Kafle's assistance was invaluable, for instance in helping Nibedita Rout, R. Sathyanarayanan, S. A. S. Sarma and myself to complete an electronically searchable transcription of related materials, such as the Niśvāsakārikā and Dīkṣottara. Once the 'Early Tantra' Project was launched, inviting Nirajan Kafle to come for a longer stay and participate in the project by producing a doctorate in Pondicherry seemed a natural choice. That doctorate was eventually completed and examined at the University of Leiden some years later, under the guidance of Peter Bisschop, and has now resulted in the book that you hold in your hands.

I confess that when, towards the beginning of Nirajan Kafle's doctoral studies, after some weeks of reading together, I asked him which part of the large Niśvāsa-corpus he wished to focus upon, I was surprised at his answer and not at once enthusiastic about his choice. From all the intriguing range of possible themes treated in the corpus transmitted in the ninth-century manuscript — yogic meditiation, initiations, magical rites — it seemed to me strange that he should choose the introductory portion, the Niśvāsamukha. The exciting discoveries which that introductory portion had to offer had already, as it seemed to me, been drawn out of the text by Sanderson's important article of 2006 on 'The Lākulas...' What remained seemed to be a screed of pronouncements about non-Mantramārga devotional practice that could surely be found in many a Purāna.

But of course I soon discovered that the devotional practices recorded by the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ are in fact of considerable intrinsic interest — all the more so as they can be dated within a corpus whose relatively early place in time, while not particularly precise, is nonetheless rather more secure than that of most sections of most $Pur\bar{a}na$ s. Furthermore, I also came to realise that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ provides invaluable help in mapping the contours of the relations between four different traditions of early Śaivism. Those traditions are: firstly, that of the Pañcarthika Paśupatas, hitherto known to us principally from the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ and Kaundinya's commentary; secondly, another Atimārga school identified by Sanderson (2006) as the Somasiddhānta, about whom we knew very little before; thirdly, the emerging Mantramārga, whose teachings are expounded in the other books transmitted in the same manuscript; and fourthly, the tradition of what might be called pre-Mantramārga "lay" practices that are reflected in the earliest layers of the corpus

of $\acute{S}ivadharma$ texts. In short, it would be difficult to exaggerate how useful this primary source is for the history of the Śaiva religions.

An edition in this series of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ thus forms a bridge between one of the primary research areas in Pondicherry over the last sixty years, namely the Śaiva Siddhānta, and a newly emerging focus of research, the Śaivism of devotees who were not religious professionals, nor necessarily sectarian initiates.¹

The Śaiva traditions have been hugely varied, encompassing antinomian practices that harnessed the power of transgressive sexual and charnel-ground rituals, as well as philosophically sophisticated defences of a range of both dualist and non-dualist theological positions. Recently, what has been most studied amongst the Sanskrit works reflecting these traditions, particularly in the last sixty years (and particularly in the French institutions of research in Pondicherry), is overwhelmingly the huge and fascinating literary corpus of doctrines and liturgies produced by an initiated elite of "professionals" whose professed aims were enjoyment of extraordinary powers (bhoga) and ultimate personal liberation characterised by the realisation of omniscience and omnipotence (mokṣa). These are arguably not the sorts of goals that one might expect to be those of a religious mainstream, and indeed the social dimensions of a large institutionalised religion seem to be absent from the earliest literature of the Mantramārga. Over time, the social base of what came to be called the Śaiva Siddhānta appears gradually to have broadened, to the point where it claimed authority over the large South Indian temple-complexes

One important body of non-sectarian Śaiva literature that has long been a focus of research in Pondicherry is that of the hymns of the $T\bar{e}v\bar{a}ram$, for they were long supposed in some sense to be works of the Śaivasiddhānta, even though this was certainly not how they were regarded in the period in which they were composed (GOODALL 2014: xxxiii). One day, a longer demonstration of this contention should be provided, showing for instance that many of the supposedly Saiddhāntika technical terms that occur in the $T\bar{e}v\bar{a}ram$ are not in fact narrowly distinctive of the Śaiva Siddhānta (terms such as pācam, pantam, and even cadācivam). An important exception here is the use of a cakalī ceytu by Sundarar, apparently as a synonym of the term sakalikarana in 7.65.5 (references to the hymns here follow Subramanya Aiyar, CHEVILLARD & SARMA 2007), which is indeed distinctive of the Mantramārga. Otherwise, one struggles to find distinctively Saiddhāntika theological or liturgical notions, or Śaiva terms deployed in contexts that imply a Saiddhāntika understanding of those terms. Furthermore, when Saiva religious professionals are mentioned, for instance in descriptions of temple processions, they are often in mixed groups and no particular importance is accorded to followers of the Śaiva Siddhānta. In 4.20.3 (translated by Törzsök 2004: 15), for example, we find a mixture of followers of observances characterised by spreading matted locks (viricataiviratikal), brahmins (antanar), Śaivas (caivar), Pāśupatas (pācupatar) and Kāpālikas (kapālikal). The Śaivas may be Saiddhāntikas, but they do not stand out from the list. Elsewhere, in similar passages, we find Śaivas and Pāśupatas together (1.66.4), or Mahāvratins alone (4.21.1), and Rudras (uruttirarkal, in 2.29.4), who may be followers of the Atimārga (thus the suggestion of TÖRZSÖK 2004: 13, fn. 49). In other words, there seems to me nothing in this body of hymns to suggest a privileged position of the Śaiva Siddhānta in the socioreligious world that they

See the section entitled 'Archaism in the realm of social religion' in the introduction to the edition of the earliest sūtras of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā (GOODALL, SANDERSON, ISAACSON et al. 2015: 47–66).

Foreword 11

ringed with multiple enclosure walls that began to proliferate in the Cola period, a phase reflected in the extensive twelfth- and post-twelfth-century corpus of South Indian Temple Āgamas, which appear intended to describe every aspect of the life of such temples as seen primarily from the perspective of the priests.³ But this body of literature belongs to a much later period and seems in any case not to have spread its influence much beyond the Tamil-speaking South.

And yet there are older sources that give us a picture of what seems to have been a socially much broader lay Śaiva religiosity. And perhaps most important of these sources is the largely still unpublished body of Sanskrit works known as the Śivadharma-corpus, the works expounding the "Religion of Śiva", produced between the sixth and ninth centuries CE. Here we find that ultimate liberation is presented as a more distant goal, as DE SIMINI explains (2016: 50):

The religion promoted by the $\dot{S}ivadharma\dot{s}\bar{a}stra$ and the $\dot{S}ivadharmottara$ is thus mainly a religion of bhukti ('enjoyment'), in which devotees strive to secure a very long afterlife in one of the celestial worlds, after which those who have generated the utmost merits can be reborn on Earth as powerful kings or wise Brahmins. Only in a future rebirth will they have the opportunity to become initiated, and will thus attain final emancipation (mukti) from the cycle of existence ($sams\bar{a}ra$).

Furthermore, we find that, instead of theology and liturgy, the principal focus is on public piety and generosity towards the religion, as DE SIMINI continues (2016: 5):

The main pillar of this worldly religion is the worship of Śiva in his aniconic representation of the linga—although the use of iconic forms is also well attested —and in the performance of gifts $(d\bar{a}na)$, either to support the community of initiated Śaiva yogins and teachers $(\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya)$, or in favour of other lay followers.

In what may be the first discussion of the Śivadharma-corpus in a work published in the Collection Indologie (Goodall 1998: 375–376, fn. 616), it is implied that the Śivadharma-corpus was produced "for non-initiates" by an initiated elite. The tenth-century Kashmirian Saiddhāntika exegete Bhaṭṭa Rāmakaṇṭha tells us in his Kiraṇavṛṭṭi (on verses 11d–12 of chapter 6) that those incapable of following the intensive religious life entailed by a regular initiation into the Śaivasiddhānta — diseased persons, the elderly, women and such — may receive an initiation that will liberate them at death, but that will not bind them to the usually obligatory post-initiatory observances. With liberation guaranteed, what they do after initiation is soteriologically irrelevant, but he suggests that they may thereafter express their devotion to Śiva, the guru and Śiva's devotees, either in a worldly way (laukikena

For a relatively recent discussion touching on this development and this corpus, see Goodall's introduction to Sathyanarayanan 2015, in particular the section entitled 'Trilocana and the South Indian Temple' (pp. 37–48).

 $r\bar{u}peṇ a)$,⁴ or in a manner taught by the $\acute{S}ivadharma$. Rāmakaṇṭha's presentation had suggested to me that the $\acute{S}ivadharma$ -corpus was diluted scripture deliberately produced by theologians who were knowingly generating an exoteric — and therefore necessarily only half-true — body of teachings, primarily for pious folk in need of religious encouragement, but unable, for whatever reason, to receive the one soteriologically effective remedy for the ills of $sams\bar{a}ra$, namely salvific $d\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}a$.

Such a model now seems flatly implausible, for a start because the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ and $\acute{S}ivadharmottara$ contain numerous allusions that connect them to Atimārga religion (see DE SIMINI 2016:51ff), not to the Mantramārga. In other words, it seems now quite clear (pace Rāmakaṇṭha and GOODALL 1998) that the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ and $\acute{S}ivadharmottara$ were not deliberately produced as an ancillary bowdlerising scripture for the uplift or social control of pious non-initiates. The testimony of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, which incorporates a lengthy account of the sorts of practices that those texts prescribe in its account of the religious context into which the Mantramārga was born, suggests that they reflect instead a vigorous independent tradition of devotion to Śiva.

The Pondicherry Centre of the EFEO is now a participating beneficiary of a five-year project funded by the European Research Council that has been awarded to Florinda DE SIMINI (« L'Orientale », Naples) to address this literature: 'Translocal Identities: The Sivadharma and the Making of Regional Religious Traditions in Premodern South Asia' (ERC grant agreement n° 803624). This new Śivadharma project, in which Nirajan KAFLE is also involved, aims to open up more of this primary source material to scholarship and to document better the huge spread of its influence across the Sanskrit cosmopolis (discernible primarily through epigraphs, translations, quotations, borrowings and commentaries). In so doing, it will inevitably also throw further light on the genesis of the complex nexus of ideas and practices that are called "Hinduism", as Nirajan KAFLE has done in this important volume.

Dominic Goodall, EFEO, Pondicherry

In other words, in a manner congruent with the well recognised exoteric brahmanical sources of *dharma*, namely *śruti* and *smṛti*: see GOODALL 1998: 375, fn. 615.

PREFACE

This work is one of the results of a larger, collaborative, three-year project on Early Tantra (2008-2010), co-funded by the Agence Nationale pour la Recherche and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG); it was jointly directed by Dominic Goodall and Harunaga Isaacson. The Japan Student Services Organization and the Jan Gonda Fund Foundation, in collaboration with the International Institute for Asian Studies, also supported my efforts to finalise the present work by providing scholarships of three months⁵ and six months⁶ respectively, allowing me to carry out research and finalize my doctoral dissertation in 2015.⁷ Subsequently, in continuation of my previous research in the field of 'early lay Śaivism', I continued to carry out research in the subject area as part of the NWO project 'From Universe of Viṣṇu to Universe of Śiva', directed by Peter BISSCHOP, University of Leiden.⁸ As a result, I had the opportunity to deepen, refine, and expand upon my initial findings to the degree that they reached the present format.

Were it not for Dominic Goodall, this work would never have seen the light of day. First and foremost, I would therefore like to express my gratitude to him for having taught me what I know about Śaivism, for inviting me to Pondicherry to work with him, and, in particular, for sharing the results of his research—both published and unpublished. During our joint research sessions at the École française d'Extrême Orient, he analysed—with incredible attention to detail—the complete draft of this work, including the translation, offering decidedly beneficial corrections. I am extremely indebted to him for his innumerable suggestions and illuminating comments on all parts of the text. Meanwhile, it goes without saying that the author takes full responsibility for any errors which undoubtedly remain—be they hidden or apparent, and wish to invoke the reader's leniency in this regard.

I also owe a great debt of gratitude to Peter C. BISSCHOP for accepting me as his doctoral student and for providing essential support of practical and administrative nature during my enrolment process at the university of Leiden. During my stay, he scrutinized my entire thesis and made many insightful observations that allowed me to improve it considerably. In particular, he kindly invested great efforts in helping me improve the structure and mode of argumentation of the introductory section of this volume, despite his manifold teaching and research obligations.

I am very grateful to Diwakar Acharya for long years of teaching the Sanskrit language, for reading the entirety of the precursor to this work, and for inviting me to his home with heart-warming frequency during my stay at Kyoto. He too shared both published and unpublished work, for which I remain thankful to this

The scholarship spanned the period from March to May, 2013.

⁶ Financial support was granted from September 2014 to February 2015.

The title of the thesis is 'The *Niśvāsamukha*, the introductory book of the *Niśvāsatattva-samhitā*: critical edition, with an introduction and annotated translation appended by Śiva-dharmasangraha 5–9'.

https://www.nwo.nl/onderzoek-en-resultaten/onderzoeksprojecten/i/44/13544.html

day. Without his help a great number of seemingly intractable textual difficulties would have remained unresolved.

I would also like to thank Yuko YOKOCHI and Somdev VASUDEVA for proposing constructive changes to the text while ameliorating it during my three-month stay at Kyoto.

My sincere thanks also go to Bhim Kandel and Kashinath Nyupane, for having taught me Sanskrit over the years with unfailing energy. Furthermore, I am grateful to Harunaga Isaacson for his insightful suggestions at different stages of this project. I would also like to express my gratitude to Sasha Lubotsky, who kindly took the time to read the language-section of this work and share his incisive observations regarding grammatical analysis.

Marion Rastelli (IKGA, University of Vienna) and Timothy Lubin (Washington and Lee University), originally anonymous reviewers of a mature draft of this work submitted for evaluation, have kindly revealed their identities. Although errors and shortcomings without doubt remain, their generosity and specialist knowledge has improved away many structural and factual shortcomings of the earlier draft, for which kind support I would like to express my gratitude.

I thank in particular my friends Esther-Maria Guggenmos, Rajan Khati-woda Nina Mirnig, Florinda De Simini, Marco Franceschini, Giovanni Ciotti, Daniele Cuneo and Andrey Klebanov for their strong encouragement throughout, and also for providing me with relevant materials.

I also owe a debt of gratitude to my friends Ven. Gyalten Jigdrel, Philip Pierce, Mary Premila, Thomas Fulton O'Gara, Suganya Anandakichenin, Leah Comeau and Timothy C. Cahill for proofreading sections of this study at different stages of its development and offering their valuable feedback.

I thank the Pondicherry Centre of the EFEO and its librarian Shanty RAYAPOULLÉ, who was most helpful in the provision of primary and secondary sources; the French Institute of Pondicherry and its librarian NARENDRAN, who showed the same generosity; the National Archives of Kathmandu, and the Nepalese-German Manuscript Cataloguing Project.

I would also like to thank the group of scholars who participated in the Workshop on Early Śaivism: the Testimony of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā held in 2007 at the EFEO in Pondicherry, during which we analysed and debated verses 1.1 to 1.88. Among them were: Alexis Sanderson, Dominic Goodall, Harunaga Isaacson, Diwakar Acharya, Peter Bisschop, Arlo Griffiths, Jun Takashima, Kei Kataoka, Anil Kumar D. Acharya, Nina Mirnig, Nibedita Rout, Andrea Acri, R. Sathyanarayanan and S.A.S. Sarma.

Preface 15

For the preparation of this work, I have drawn on digital materials from the following electronic resources:

- 1. Muktabodha Indological Research Institute
- 2. Digital Library of India
- 3. GRETIL (Göttingen Register of Electronic Texts in Indic Languages).

A sole 9th-century⁹ Nepalese palm-leaf manuscript preserved in the National Archives, Kathmandu (NAK) transmits what appears to be the oldest surviving Śaiva tantra, called the *Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā*. This manuscript consists of five separate books—in order of appearance within the manuscript, these are the *Niśvāsamukha*, the *Mūlasūtra*, the *Uttarasūtra*, the *Nayasūtra* and the *Guhyasūtra*. ¹⁰ Various scholars have referred to this manuscript in the past, beginning with ŚĀŚTRĪ (1905: lxxvii, 137–140), BAGCHI (1929: 757 ff.), GOUDRIAAN & GUPTA (1981: 33–36), SANDERSON (2006: 152), GOODALL & ISAACSON (2007: 4) and, most recently, GOODALL et al. (2015: 103–108).

Since the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ has not yet been published in full, ¹¹ it is with great joy that we herewith present the first critical edition and annotated translation of the work. We also present an edition of five chapters—chapters five to nine—of the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ as an appendix. These chapters are closely linked with the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, ¹² provide a host of text-historically relevant information, and hence merit special attention. A critical edition and annotated translation (GOODALL et al. 2015) of the three books which together comprise the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ —i.e.

For an analysis of the evidence relating to the likely date of composition of the text, the reader is referred to pp. 24 ff.

In addition to the five books of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā, a text called Niśvāsakārikā has been detected. This text contains a large section that is referred to as the Dīkṣottara, presumably an originally separate Śaiva work (see Goodall et al. 2015: 23–26). The Niśvāsakārikā is not contained in the Nepalese manuscript but survives independently in three South Indian transcripts preserved in the French Institute of Pondicherry (T. 17, T. 127 and T. 150). It is to be noted that Guhyasūtra 18.15 refers to a work called Kārikā, presumably a reference to the Niśvāsakārikā. Besides, there exists a Śaiva pratiṣṭhā text—the Niśvāsākhyamahātantra—traced to a Nepalese manuscript (NGMPP reel number A 41/13), which, however, bears no apparent connection to the Niśvāsa corpus. As far as we are aware, these are the texts that have survived to date under the title Niśvāsa. From other Śaiva sources we learn that a number of other texts may have existed under this same title (Goodall et al. 2015: 23–30). The existence of different works under the same title leads to the assumption that the Niśvāsa may have developed in the fashion of the Kālottara, undergoing more than one recension. (D. Acharya is to be credited for first advancing this theory; for the various recensions of the Kālottara, see Goodall 2007: 125–127).

Sanderson 2006 contains extracts from the *Niśvāsamukha*.

For more details, see the section 'Borrowings from the *Niśvāsamukha* by the *Śivadharma-saṅgraha*' (p. 88).

the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, the $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, and the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ —has been published by Dominic GOODALL, Alexis SANDERSON and Harunaga ISAACSON in a joint effort, a process in which we have been involved as well.

The Niśvāsatattvasamhitā is consistently presented as one of the eighteen Rudratantras in all the lists of the Mantramārgic (Saiddhāntika) Śaiva canon. ¹³ This canon consists altogether of twenty-eight principal scriptures, falling into two categories: ten Śiyabheda (Śiya-divisions) and eighteen Rudrabheda (Rudra-divisions), along with scriptures that claim to be sub-recensions (upabheda) of these. ¹⁴ All these scriptures, including sub-recensions, are works of authority for the Saiva Siddhānta. The Niśvāsatattvasamhitā is an important text for tracing the early history of tantric Saivism: it may be the oldest surviving text of the 'Mantramārga' (the path of mantras), the term by which the Niśvāsamukha (4.132) refers to tantric Śaivism. The tantric tradition, or more specifically, "the scriptural revelations of the Śaiva mainstream" (SANDERSON 1988: 660), is believed to have developed in South Asia from about the 6th century CE. 16 This religious system presents itself as a superior and more powerful form of religion and promises supernatural powers (bhukti) and liberation (mukti) to its followers, who are encouraged to rely on the power of spells (vidyā, mantra), which in turn require initiation (GOODALL et al. 2015: 15). The Niśvāsamukha, in its four chapters, is devoted to relating the religious context in which the Mantramarga, purportedly the 'highest stream of religion', evolved.¹⁷ The Mantramārga is thereupon taught in the subsequent four books of the Niśvāsatattvasamhitā. The Niśvāsamukha is the earliest extant source to present a five-fold framework known as the 'Five Streams'. This framework envelops the entirety of the Niśvāsatattvasamhitā in a dialogue between Siva and his consort Devī; the success of this scheme is reflected in the fact that subsequent early Saiva treatises have adopted versions of this taxonomy for the framing of their own respective works. 18

The 'Five Streams' ($pa\~nca\ srot\=a\=h$) are subjected to a hierarchical stratification which, graded from 'lowest' to 'highest', comprise the following elements: the Laukika (worldly), Vaidika (vedic), Ādhyātmika (relating to the soul), Atimārga (transcendent), and Mantramārga streams. The $Ni\'sv\=asamukha\ (=Mukha)$ functions both as a pithy summary of the first four streams, presented as exoteric tenet systems, and as a preface to the Mantramārga, which is to be expounded in the

The reader is referred to GOODALL (2004: x ff.).

An early list of these scriptures is already attested in the *Uttarasūtra* (1.23 ff.), the second book of the *Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā*. For other lists, see the appendix to GOODALL (1998).

¹⁵ Sanderson (1988: 668).

¹⁶ GOODALL & ISAACSON (2011: 122).

Alexis Sanderson (2006: 145) was the first Western scholar to introduce the term Mantramārga as a designation of tantric Śaivism. For a detailed discussion of tantric Śaivism, see Sanderson (2006: 145ff).

The framework of the Niśvāsamukha is apparent in the structural makeup of the Pauṣkara-pārameśvara, the Svacchanda, the Mṛgendratantra, the Jayadrathayāmala, the Pūrvakāmika, and the Śataratnasaṅgraha.

ensuing volumes of the compilation. It is worth noting that the text of the Niśvāsamukha does not expound the 'lower streams' in equal measure—in fact, as we shall see, quite the contrary holds true. The first, Laukika, stream constitutes the largest part of the text and extends over the first three chapters in their entirety. This has the effect that subject-wise, the majority of the text is devoted to the lay Saiva religion. As regards the sources of the Laukika section, parts of it have been traced to the Manusmrti. There are some passages for which we find parallels in early Purānas, such as the Skandapurāna. Although we have singled out a diversity of other passages in the Laukika section that we suspect of likewise containing borrowed material, we have not yet been able to establish fully which of the external sources might have served as templates. The second, Vaidika 'stream', also, receives relatively thorough treatment, spanning forty-one verses (4.1–41), all of which are partly traceable to the *Manusmrti*. The Ādhyātmika tream encompasses the teaching of Sānkhya (verses 4.42–48a) and Yoga (4.48b–69), yet receives altogether scant attention—in particular the Sānkhya system is related rather briefly. The Atimārga stream covers the system of the Pāśupatas at some length and is structurally divided into two subsections: the first is referred to as the Atyāśrama subsection, spanning from 4.70b to 88c; the second (4.88d–131d) provides an account of the teaching of the cosmological system of the Lokātīta, particularly as devised by the Kāpālikas.

Unlike the case of the first three streams, whose sources are only partially evident, it is apparent that the teaching of the Atyāśramins as contained in the first sub-section Atimārga constitutes, for the greatest part, a paraphrase of the $P\bar{a}$ śupatasūtra. That being the case, it is quite possible that, likewise, the second sub-section—elaborating upon the cosmological system of the Kāpālikas—might have drawn from an undefined Kāpālika source, quite likely a source which is no longer extant. As it stands, the fourth section, on the Atimārga, is exceptional insofar as it contains a considerable number of the preciously few extant textual references that—through the act of borrowing—indirectly hail from the tradition of the Kāpālika-Pāśupatas. Since this material is—to the current state of our limited knowledge—not readily available elsewhere, it is, without doubt, an inordinately important source for further research on the otherwise sparsely known 'proto-Śaiva' Pāśupata-school. The Mantramārga is not taught in the Niśvāsamukha itself, which only prefaces it. However, the Niśvāsamukha makes passing references to the

¹⁹ See Sanderson 2006.

The text of parts of this last section has already been published and discussed at length by SANDERSON in his 2006 article, 'The Lākulas: New Evidence of a System Intermediate between Pāñcārthika Pāśupatism and Āgamic Śaivism'.

We do nevertheless learn, by way of the frame-story of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, that supreme knowledge is only possible through initiation $(d\bar{\imath}k_s\bar{a})$, which destroys worldly existence (1.22). This initiation falls into two categories, that relating to $vidy\bar{a}$ 'supernatural enjoyment' on the one hand, and to $nirv\bar{a}na$ 'final liberation' (1.27–28) on the other. See GOODALL et al. 2015: 50–51.

Mantramārga in the inceptive and final sections of the work.²² The frame narrative of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ thus finally presents us the Mantramārga teaching in relation to the teachings of the Laukika, Vedic, Ādhyātmika and the Atimārga systems. However, it is expounded, in profound detail, in the ensuing volumes of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$. One of the most noteworthy characteristics of the Mantramārga as presented in the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, the $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ and the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$, is that it contains no antecedent parallels that we have been able to trace. It therefore comprises the oldest surviving exposition of the Mantramārga amongst all presently known textual sources.

Concerning the typology of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s content, as well as that of the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, two distinct types of teachings become discernible. While the former presents non-tantric traditions, the latter is devoted to tantric Śaivism, which, as we have briefly mentioned above, requires initiation. Given this discrepancy, it is worth noting that they all are contained in a single manuscript. This is indeed a unique feature in the textual history of the early Saiva tradition—none of the other pre-10th-century canonic Saiva scriptures, such as the Kirana, the noneclectic and eclectic versions of the $K\bar{a}lottara$, and the $Sv\bar{a}yambhuvas\bar{u}trasa\dot{n}qraha$, commences with non-tantric content. Thus, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, as the opening book of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$, is unique not only in the context of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, but also with regards to the larger history of early Mantramārga Śaivism. Judging from textual indicators that will emerge in more detail as the present study progresses, it appears that the Niśvāsamukha was likely composed in order to introduce the Mantramārga to other major 'Hindu' traditions,²³ including branches of Śaivism. We suppose that the tradition of Saiva tantra had already developed a clear identity distinct from that of other Saiva traditions. Now, for the first time, the author of the Niśvāsamukha expends effort to associate tantric Saivism with other contemporaneous $m\bar{a}rqas$ (paths) of mainstream 'Hindu' traditions—perhaps coining the term 'Mantramārga' in the process. Thus, it may well have been composed in partial subservience to an effort to provide a point of connection between Mantramārga Saivism and the religious communities it primarily interacted with. Hence it appears quite likely that the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ played a noteworthy part in introducing tantric Saivism to the diverse Hindu communities during the early stages of the history of Šaivism.

Author, Origin, Date, and Title of the Text

Author of the Text

Although we do not know who the author of the compendium might be, we can nevertheless make a number of relevant, corroborated hypotheses, based on the

²² These are 1.27, 1.56, 4.132, 4.134 and 4.135.

We are here wielding the term 'Hindu' in the broader sense of the word.

 $9^{\rm th}$ -century manuscript of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ which we have used for this publication. The manuscript contains the oldest extant version of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha^{24}$ and is written by a singular scribe who presents the five individual volumes in a format which suggests that they form a coherent unit, that of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -'compendium'. The way of presentation of the individual teachings therein may well be indicative of the milieu from which the author of the text hailed, clearly a preponderantly Śaiva background.

Place of Origin

It is, at present, nigh-on-impossible to ascertain, beyond doubt, where and under what circumstances the Niśvāsamukha was composed. Nevertheless, we can draw on rudimentary geographical textual evidence: the toponyms Naimiṣāraṇya 'Naimiṣā forest' (1.2, 1.5) and Devadāruvana 'pine forest' (1.11), for example,²⁵ are in all likelihood situated in the northern part of India. Peter BISSCHOP has offered the plausible suggestion that the Naimiṣā forest may have been situated on the bank of the river Gomatī, in what nowadays is the region of Uttar Pradesh.²⁶ Although we do not know the exact location of the Devadāruvana, BISSCHOP,²⁷ pointing to the evidence of the Skandapurāṇa, suggests that this place is probably situated somewhere in the region of the Himavat, the 'snow[capped] mountains.'²⁸

Besides these two illustrious woodland areas, the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ makes mention of 'Mahālaya' (situated in the Himālayan region) (3.27) and 'Kedāra' (3.28), known to be located in modern-day Uttarakhand. Note that all of the aforementioned places are renowned, well-attested holy sites. Textually, this is borne out by the description of the Mahālaya as innately brimming with soteriological benefits available to anyone willing to frequent it:

 $mah\bar{a}pralayasth\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$ ca sraṣṭānugrahakārakaḥ | darśanād eva gacchante padan divyaṃ mahālaye || 3.27 ||

He who stands in Mahāpralaya $(mah\bar{a}pralayasth\bar{a}y\bar{\imath})^{29}$ [is] the creator and agent of grace; from merely (eva) seeing him [=Siva] in [the sacred site of] Mahālaya, people will attain (gacchante) [in the next life] a celestial state of being.

Note that the issue regarding the precise title of the work is somewhat complex, as we shall further investigate from p. 27 ff. We have opted here to refer to the work by the provisional title 'Niśvāsamukha'.

²⁵ For a more elaborate discussion, consult p. 45.

²⁶ See Bisschop (2006: 217).

²⁷ Bisschop (2006: 255).

BISSCHOP (2006a: 195) explains: "Most of the Purāṇic sources agree that it is a Himalayan mountain."

Perhaps this is to be understood in two ways: 'he who remains [even] in a period of total resorption [of the universe]' and 'he who stands in [the sacred site called] Mahā(pra)laya'.

Mahālaya is the summit of the Himavat where Mahādeva, according to Purāṇic traditions, planted his foot-print, for which reason this location had become one of the holiest places for the Śaivas of ancient times.³⁰ Although the exact location of Mahālaya remains obscure, it is most likely located in the Himālayas.

Likewise, the fame of Kedāra as a worthy pilgrimage site is reflected in our text by its presentation as a special place infused with extraordinary features. As shall be shown in more detail below, 32 it is stated that by dying in the vicinity of any site of the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$, a group of forty pilgrimage places, one penetrates the shell of the egg of Brahmā and ascends to the world associated with the site of one's demise; one will not be reborn in this world. Moreover, by merely drinking water from the sacred site of Kedāra one can obtain a result identical to the fruit of attaining the five divine sets of eight sacred places. Kedāra also appears in $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 7.115, and the elaborate legend of its origin and significance is recounted in chapter 16 of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$.

What is striking regarding Kardamāla is that, although Kardamāla is a minor, regional holy site, fit for the performance of bath rituals,³⁴ it is here mentioned as being amongst much more famous places for bathing.³⁵ If the passage is not borrowed from (an) earlier source(s), this would imply that the author treats it as if it were of equal standing to the towering, famed hallmarks of sacred geography. To our mind, this considerably strengthens the importance of Kardamāla as an indication of the provenance of our text, since its relatively limited renown suggests that the author, in all likelihood, must have been intimately acquainted with that area—otherwise he would have scarcely been aware of its existence.

In sum, Peter Bisschop plausibly concludes that the evidence culled from the list of toponyms suggests that the place of origin where the *Niśvāsamukha* was

śoṇapuṣkaralohitye mānase sindhusāgare | brahmāvartte karddamāle snātvā ca lavaṇodadhau || 3.12 || sarvapāpaviśuddhātmā pitṛdevāṃś ca pūjayet |

Having bathed in the Śoṇa [river], Puṣkara [lake] or Lohitya [river], in [lake] Mānasa, in the place where the Indus, meets the ocean or in Brahmāvartta, or Kardamāla or in the salty ocean, one [becomes] free from all sins [and] one should [then] worship one's ancestors and the gods.

³⁰ Bisschop 2006: 66.

 $^{^{31}}$ Niśvāsamukha 3.28a–29a.

³² See p. 62.

For the full treatment of Kedāra, see p. 63 onwards.

 $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 3.12–13 reads:

Peter Bisschop, during the second International Workshop on Early Tantra, July 2009, Pondicherry, whilst presenting a paper on 'Purāṇic Topography in the Niśvāsa', suggested that this location may have had some connection with the Pāśupatas.

composed could be narrowed down to a stretch of land located between the Himavat and modern-day Gujarat. 36

Let us investigate, somewhat more closely, the list of forty pilgrimage sites briefly referred to above. These are known as the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$, "the group of five ogdoads". In all likelihood, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ simply adopted this list of 'five sets of eight' $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$ from an earlier source, ³⁸ in which case its own origin need not have anything to do with the list. We cannot, thus, take the list as evidence to locate the origin of the text. In addition, we encounter a list of rivers in $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 3.2–8. This list also cannot be taken as evidence for the location of the origin of the text, as the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ once again may have borrowed it from some earlier source, since lists of rivers appear in a vast range of texts.

The Prākṛtic words in the text might serve as a further, although limited, indicator of its origin. The text uses Prākṛtic vowels, such as $s\bar{a}yojya$ for $s\bar{a}yujya$, in many a case. Similarly, it records a further Prākṛtic vowel, $v\bar{a}ge\acute{s}y\bar{a}m$ for $v\bar{a}g\acute{s}vary\bar{a}m$ in 4.95a and 4.126c. There are some more conspicuous instances of Prākṛtic influence in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. For example, the omission of the final t in optatives; and word formations particular to the language, for example $cat\bar{a}l\bar{s}\acute{a}.^{40}$ Such Prākṛtic forms once again invite the conclusion that the language employed in these instances is more likely indicative of a northern than a southern origin. If the text had a more southern origin, we would expect other characteristic types of deviations from standard Sanskrit: masculine nouns, for instance, might be treated as neuter in gender; Prākṛtisms like $cat\bar{a}l\bar{i}\acute{s}a$ would be rare. Prākṛtic phonetic shifts are much less likely to be found in the non-standard Sanskrit written in Dravidian-language-speaking areas, in which Prākṛits were not spoken. All in all, we can conclude that a North Indian origin of the text appears most plausible.

During the 'Early Tantra' Workshop, July 2009, at Pondicherry, Peter BISSCHOP showed how the presentation of the śrāddha-rites listed in the Matsyapurāṇa (22.77) contains evidence for this hypothesis. Likewise, Peter BISSCHOP referred to the Prabhāsakhandha (3.53) of the Skandapurāṇa, as well as to extracts from the Viṣṇudharma (36.13) professing Kardamāla to be a pilgrimage site consecrated especially for Viṣṇu's incarnation as a boar (varāha). Following Peter BISSCHOP's lead, we have found, moreover, that the same connection between Kardamāla and the varāha-incarnation of Viṣṇu is made in the Padmapurāṇa (170.6,7,10). This indicates that Kardamāla—about which little else is known—must have been a significant place of pilgrimage for both Vaiṣṇavites and Śaivas. In the Nāradapurāṇa, Kardamāla appears in two distinct contexts: (a) as a pilgrimage site of Śaiva interest (2.70:79 and 1.104:189); (b) as a place for performing the ancestral (śrāddha) rites (2.47:38). The śrāddha-context, as noted above, has been traced already by Peter BISSCHOP in the Matsyapurāṇa.

Literally 'five [sets] of eight', the term has been translated as "the group of five ogdoads" by Goodall (2004: 15, fn. 617). For a detailed treatment on the pañcāṣṭaka see Goodall 2004: 315, Bisschop 2006: 27–37 and TAK2 s.v. quhyāstaka.

Despite our best efforts, we have not, as of yet, been able to trace the exact source.

³⁹ i.e. 1.41d, 1.79c, 1.79a, 1.83a, 1.86c, 1.89d, 1.91a, 1.94c, 1.96b, 1.99b, 2.18c, 3.29a, 3.86d, 3.145c, 3.150c, 3.191b and 4.87d.

See the footnote on verse 4.107 for the form $cat\bar{a}l\bar{i}\acute{s}a$.

⁴¹ See also GOODALL et al. 2015: 72–73.

Dating of the Text

The dating of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ remains an open question, since the sole manuscript of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ to survive has been copied from an unknown source in 9th-century Nepal. Although the manuscript is not dated, the script used to write it, 'Licchavi', is characteristic of the 9th century. This provides us with a workable terminus ante quem. We note two instances where blank spaces purposefully feature in the manuscript—presumably in places where letters in the source-manuscript had become illegible or were missing to begin with. If these gaps indeed reflect damage to the exemplar, this would mean that the scribe of the extant manuscript was working from a manuscript that was already worn—and therefore, most likely, not of recent origin.

Goodall et al. (2015: 474) mention the possibility that the scribe of the manuscript failed to copy at least one folio of the source text. Were this indeed the case, this state of affairs would show that the manuscript we presently have recourse to is not the autograph, but a later witness. In other words, this would lead us to suppose that there existed at least one manuscript before the present one. This leads us to recalibrate the *terminus ante quem* of the original and settle it in the somewhat more distant past, and yet it is not possible to discern how much older the autograph would have been than the extant, 9th-century source that forms the basis of this study.

The dating of the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$, also, might serve as a valuable indicator for the time-frame of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s composition. Goodall assumes that the whole corpus of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ was in all likelihood composed between the middle of the 5^{th} and end of the 7^{th} century. Hence for Goodall et al (2015: 35), the text

... begins ... with the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$ (c. 450-550 AD) and is completed with the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ probably by the end of the 7th century. The pointers may be broadly grouped under the (partially overlapping) heads of palaeography; iconography; terminology; theology; social religion; and intertextuality (allusion within the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ to other literature and allusions in other literature to the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$).

Bakker (2014: 9), however, prior to having had the possibility of consulting Goodall et al.'s completed edition, expressed doubts about Goodall's dating of the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, and instead believed it to be a century younger. He voiced the possibility that the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$ and the $Skandapur\bar{a}na$ might have evolved in the same period.

However, at present, these deliberations contribute only in minor ways to our quest for the likely time-frame of the date of composition of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$. Had

See GOODALL et al. 2015: 103 ff. For more details, see the discussion of the manuscript of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, p. 124 ff. below.

These are fol. 50° , line 4 and fol. 52° , line 4.

it been possible to establish the direction of borrowing between the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ and the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, we could have dated the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ more precisely. Since evidence suggests⁴⁴ that the passage on the pilgrimage site of Kedāra, as rendered in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ and the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, has very likely been composed by the same person, we can at least state that these two portions of text might have been composed at around the same time.

There are some parallels shared by the Niśvāsamukha and Purāṇic sources. For example, Niśvāsamukha 1.2ab (aṣṭāśītisahasrāṇi ṛṣṇṇām ūrdhvaretasām) is paralleled in the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa (1.7:180ab and 1.21:170cd) and the Viṣṇupurāṇa (1.6:36ab). Similarly, Niśvāsamukha 1.126c–127b (bukasya karavīrasya arkkasyonmattakasya ca || caturṇṇāṃ puṣpajātīnāṃ sarvam āghrāti śaṅkaraḥ|) is almost an exact parallel of Skandapurāṇa 28.31abcd (caturṇāṃ puṣpajātīnāṃ gandham āghrāti śaṃkaraḥ || arkasya karavīrasya bilvasya ca bukasya ca|). Niśvāsamukha 1.71ab (śataṃ sanmārjane puṇyaṃ sahasram upalepane) is closely paralleled by Skandapurāṇa 27.24ab (saṃmārjanaṃ pañcaśataṃ sahasram upalepanam). Although the first pāda is slightly different, we have found sahasram upalepane/sahasram upalepanam nowhere else except in these two texts and the Śivadharmasaṅgraha, which is known to have borrowed from the Niśvāsamukha.

It transpires that the parallels between the Niśvāsamukha and Purāṇic sources could help shed light on this issue if we could determine the direction of borrowing. With a clear indication of the definite source from which borrowing occurred yet missing, we cannot ascertain whether these verses were extracted from a shared, third source, or whether they found their way into the Niśvāsamukha and the Purāṇas by dint of having been widely current, ubiquitously recited verses that had no obvious singular source. Be that as it may, the Niśvāsamukha's connection with these old Purāṇic sources may testify to the antiquity of the Niśvāsamukha if we are somehow able to substantiate an argument of contemporaneity—yet for this, we would need further corroborative evidence. Since we can neither ascertain the direction of borrowing of textual parallels, nor therefore the relative antiquity of the Niśvāsamukha, it would be ambitious to hypothesise about the absolute date of the Niśvāsamukha based on the above evidence alone.

There is, however, one important case of overlapping material in which the direction of borrowing can be determined. We have noted (pp. 88 ff.) that chapters 5–9 of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha and the text of the Niśvāsamukha⁴⁵ are closely related. Having examined this relation in greater detail, we have concluded that the Śivadharmasaṅgraha has been composed after the Niśvāsamukha, as we will explain below. A. K. ACHARYA, in a recent study (2009: 91) places the date of the

The reader here is referred also to indicators presented on p. 63 ff.

⁴⁵ The introductory part of the first chapter and the section on Ādhyātmika and Atimārga (i.e. after verse 4.41) are not attested to in the Śivadharmasaṅgraha.

 $\acute{S}ivadharmasa \acute{n}graha$ between the 9th and 10th centuries. This establishes that the pre-9th $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ predates the $\acute{S}ivadharmasa \acute{n}graha$.

Another important locus of investigation is the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$, not least because the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (4.70c–88) paraphrases substantial sections of the work—which ipso facto must precede the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. If it could be established that Kauṇḍinya's commentary on the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ had any direct or indirect bearing on the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, a more precise dating would be possible. As we shall see in the course of this study, 47 there is indeed a considerable amount of additional information in the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upata-section$ of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ to complement the content of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$. Yet we cannot discern any manifest influence of Kauṇḍinya's 6th-century commentary to the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ reflected in these textual passages. One occasionally encounters borrowings from the Manusmrti, both in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s Vedic section (4.2–41), which borrows from the third chapter of the Manusmrti, and in the third chapter of the Laukika section of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, where borrowings from Manu's chapters 2, 3, and 11 are traceable. 48

Since OLIVELLE (2005: 24–25 ff.), on the basis of textual, historical, and numismatic evidence, dates the Manusmrti to the 2^{nd} – 3^{rd} century CE, his findings serve as a dependable $terminus\ post\ quem$ for the dating of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$.

Let us scrutinize another relevant piece of evidence that is worthwhile investigating. It is likely that the *Svacchandatantra* was redacted after the *Niśvāsa* corpus, for the former borrows a large amount of text from the latter. ⁴⁹ For example, Sanderson (2006: 160), commenting on the account of Atimārga in the *Svacchandatantra*, writes,

... I propose that this explanation of the term Atimārga is not that of the Svacchanda itself, and that on the contrary his source exactly confirms the use of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. This conclusion rests on Svacchanda 11.179c–184.

More recently (2009: 50), SANDERSON argued the following:

it is clear in my view that the Svacchandatantra was redacted after the formation of the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$ corpus, the $Tantrasadbh\bar{a}va$ after the Svacchanda, the $Kubjik\bar{a}matatantra$ after the $Tantrasadbh\bar{a}va$, the hexad of the $Jayadrathay\bar{a}mala$ after the $Kubjik\bar{a}matatantra$, and the remaining three hexads after the first.

On the basis of Sanderson's arguments, it is evident that the *Niśvāsamukha* was composed before the *Svacchandatantra*. Since the date of the *Svacchandatantra* is an open question, the exact dating of the *Niśvāsamukha* remains a complicated issue, as pointed out by Goodall et al. (2015: 22):

⁴⁶ See p. 24.

⁴⁷ Refer to p. 70.

The Laukika section spans the first three chapters of the *Niśvāsamukha*.

⁴⁹ See Sanderson (2006: 160 ff.).

More problematic is the relative date of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ in the corpus. Being professedly an introduction, it presupposes the existence of at least one $s\bar{u}tra$ for it to introduce, but because it does not discuss the subject matter of the $s\bar{u}tras$, it is difficult to judge whether or not it was written when all of them were already in existence and constituted together a $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$.

In the end, we agree with the proposition of GOODALL et al. (2015: 35) that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ was redacted before the 8^{th} century, probably some time during the seventh century. The precise date of the text, however, still needs further investigation.

The Title of the Work

Exactly what is meant by the title of the work $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukhatattvasamhit\bar{a}$ is difficult to assess clearly. Let us begin by trying to understand the meaning of the name $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$, which is given as the title for the other four books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ in the respective chapter colophons. This title seems to be less problematic in terms of the meaning concerned.

The $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$ (5.50–51) provides us with the etymology (nirvacana) of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ as follows:

```
anadhītyatha niśvāsam niśvasanti punaḥ punaḥ |
adhītvā caiva niśvāsan na punar nniśvasanti te ||
niśvāsa eva vikhyātas sarvatantrasamuccayaḥ |
yaṃ jñātvā mucyate jantuh saṃsārabhavabandhanāt ||
```

Now ('tha) those who do not study the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$ will go on sighing and sighing. And those who do study the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$, they will not sigh again. [For this reason] it is known as the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$, the compendium of all Tantras, on knowing which a creature will be released from the bondage of being in $sams\bar{a}ra$. Goodall et al. (2015: 400)

On the basis of this passage we may render the title of the work as 'compendium $(samhit\bar{a})$ of the essence (tattva) of sighing $(ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa)$.' The same work (5.53) uses the term $samhit\bar{a}$ to refer to the twenty-eight scriptures of the Śaiva canon:⁵⁰

```
aṣṭāviṃśati yā proktā saṃhitāḥ parameṣṭhinā | teṣāṃ vyākhyā tu karttavyā upariṣṭāt samantataḥ ||
```

In the consecutive verse (5.54), this book, on its own, is identified as the Niśvāsottarasaṃhitā. It appears that the term here is likewise employed to refer to a tantric text rather than to a compendium of any kind—after all, it is referring to a single work: śate dve daśa ślokānāṃ niśvāsottarasamhitā | ekavimśatkulān devi adhītya hy uddharisyati |.

Of the twenty-eight scriptures taught by the Supreme One commentary will have to be offered $(kartavy\bar{a})$ later $(uparist\bar{a}t)$ in full (samantatah). GOODALL et al. (2015: 400)

In the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$ (8.10), we come across the term $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$, where it refers to this particular work:

```
adhyāpayitvā etaṃ tu tattvasaṃhitam uttamam | buddhvā bhaktimayaṃ śiṣyam ācāryatve niyojayet ||
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Having taught him this supreme $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$, if he realises that his disciple is full of devotion, he may appoint him as an $\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya$. Goodall et al. (2015: 330)

The same $s\bar{u}tra$ once again uses the same term in the same way in 8.20:

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samyag eṣa samākhyāto tattvasaṃhita-m-uttamaḥ | sagotrā eva mucyante yasya lekhye 'pi tiṣṭhati ||
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This supreme *tattvasaṃhitā* has been fully taught. All the members of one's *gotra* are liberated if one has it even [only] in [the form of] a manuscript. GOODALL et al. (2015: 335)

In the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ (1.4) the compound $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$ does not feature; however the shorter term $samhit\bar{a}$ is used in congruence with the above connotations.⁵¹ It hence appears that these phrases feature in somewhat interchangeable contexts, which would downgrade the indicative significance of the component tattva; the omission of tattva appears to be attributable to metrical demands of versification. Furthermore, the use of the term $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$ to refer to a Śaiva tantra is also attested by Hṛdayaśiva in a passage copied from the Mrgendratantra, where he refers to the text as the $Mrgendratattvasamhit\bar{a}$. This suggests that in a Śaiva context, both words, namely $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$ and $samhit\bar{a}$, may refer to a work of tantric nature. Taken in that sense, the conjunction of either term with the word $niśv\bar{a}sa$ —which means 'sighing'—could impel us to render the phrase $Niśv\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ as 'tantra of sighing'. In other words, it may refer to a tantra that originated from the sighing of Śiva, that is to say, a tantra that originated from the speech of Śiva.

At first blush, it seemed tricky to analyse $Niśv\bar{a}samukhatattvasamhit\bar{a}$, which might look as though it were intended to mean 'compendium $(samhit\bar{a})$ of the essence (tattva) of the sighing $(niśv\bar{a}sa)$ face (mukha)'. But since it is the first book in the manuscript-compendium, it would be reasonable for it be referred to as the 'face' of the $Niśv\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$. For that sense, one might perhaps have expected instead

For the full quotation and translation, the reader is referred to p. 29.

Cambridge University Library, Add. 2833, folio. 65°3–4: mṛgemdratat[t]vasaṃhitāyāṃ prāyaścittam likhyate; fol. 67°4–5: iti mṛgendratat[t]vasaṃhitāyāṃ prāyaścittapaṭalam iti].

the order $niśv\bar{a}sa$ -tattva- $samhit\bar{a}$ -mukha. But now that we know that $samhit\bar{a}$ and $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$ can be used interchangeably to refer to a 'scripture', we can mentally remove $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$ and understand $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ to mean 'the [pre]face to the Niśvāsa'. We therefore follow Sanderson (2006) in frequently referring to the book as the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$. A complete translation of the complete title $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ - $tattvasamhit\bar{a}$ might be 'the scripture that is the [pre]face to the [scripture called the] Sigh'.

The position of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ in the corpus of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$

Delving further into the question regarding the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s identity vis-àvis the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$, the following passage of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ (1.1–5b) indicates that its author regards the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ as an independent text in itself:

upariṣṭāc caturthan tu sūtram ārabhyate punaḥ |
tatra sūtratrayaṃ proktaṃ boddhavyam anupūrvaśaḥ ||
mūlañ cottarasūtraṃ [[((ca nayasūtraṃ tathaiva))]] ca |
guhyasūtrañ caturthan tu procyamānaṃ nibodha me ||
tenaiva saha saṃyuktā saṃhitaikā prapaṭhyate | ⁵³
niśvāseti ca nāmena⁵⁴ saṃpūrṇṇā tu tato bhavet || ⁵⁵
niśvāsasaṃhitā hy eṣā mukhena saha saṃyutā |
pañcasrotās tu ye proktā mukhena parikīrtitāḥ ||
tena yuktā bhavet puṣṭā sarvasūtreṣu paṭhyate |

Now (punah) below (uparistat) begins the fourth $s\bar{u}tra$. Among those $[s\bar{u}tras]$, it should be understood that three have been taught in order: the $M\bar{u}la$, the $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$ and the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$. Hear from me the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$, the fourth, being taught. Joined with that $[s\bar{u}tra]$, one $samhit\bar{a}$ is promulgated: it then becomes complete, [known] by the name $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$. This, joined with the Mukha, is the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sasamhit\bar{a}$. The Five Streams that are spoken of are proclaimed by the Mukha. Joined with that, it becomes full: $[the\ full\ samhit\bar{a}]$ is taught in all $[these]\ s\bar{u}tras.^{56}$ (GOODALL et al. 2015: 21)

The above-quoted passage indicates that the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$ and $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ are the first three $s\bar{u}tras$. The extract, moreover, informs us that the fourth $s\bar{u}tra$ is

⁵³ prapathyate | NK; prapadhyate W.

niśvāseti ca nāmena] NW; niḥśvāseti nāmena K.

sampūrņņā tu tato bhavet] NWK^{pc} ; sampūrņņām ca tato bhavet K^{ac} .

Given the cryptic nature of the above passage and the lack of further comparative materials, the translation quoted here should be regarded as tentative.

the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. We can therefore safely assume that the former three were already in existence by the time the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ was composed.⁵⁷ This in turn suggests that the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ is the fourth book also with regards to the date of its composition.⁵⁸ In fact, in the section cited above, the term $anup\bar{u}rva\acute{s}ah$, 'in due order', appears to be implying the relative chronology of the first three $s\bar{u}tras$. The text mentions that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ is 'complete' $(samp\bar{u}rn\bar{a})$, provided these four $s\bar{u}tras$ are joined. Note that the text neither refers to the Mukha (i.e. the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$) as a $s\bar{u}tra$, nor even as the fifth text of the compendium. It merely mentions that the compendium becomes enriched, literally 'nourished' $(pu\dot{s}ta)$, if consulted in conjunction with the Mukha. Therefore, perhaps, we should understand that the Mukha is somehow related to all the $s\bar{u}tras$ while at the same time remaining an independent treatise.

Moreover, $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 18.15 tacitly suggests a separate identity for the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa-mukha$. It refers to the $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ (i.e. the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sak\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$) as the fifth $s\bar{u}tra$, without, however, classifying the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ as belonging to the same category:

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catvāro<sup>59</sup> kathitā sūtrā samukhādyā varānane | pañcamam tu param<sup>60</sup> sūtram kārikā nāma nāmataḥ ||
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The four $s\bar{u}tras$ have been taught, the Mukha being [their] beginning, o lovely-faced lady! The fifth is the highest $s\bar{u}tra$, called $K\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ by name.

In addition, the post-colophon statement of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ supports our assumption of a separate identity of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. The post-colophon counts only the number of verses of the four $s\bar{u}tras$ and explicitly refers to the collection as a group of four. It thereby excludes the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$: $asmin\ s\bar{u}tra-catustaye\ sahasracatustayam\ \acute{s}lokam\ \acute{s}at\bar{a}ni\ pa\~nca\ ca\ iti\ |\ ,$ 'in this fourfold collection $s\bar{u}tras$ there are four thousand and five hundred verses.' The stated number roughly matches the total sum of verses of these four $s\bar{u}tras$, thereby providing further textual evidence for an originally separate, though eventually associated identity of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Had the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s verses been included in the verse-number counted by the scribe, the numbering would have easily exceeded five thousand. 61

We are ... confident that the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$ was followed by the $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, which was followed by the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$, which was in turn followed by the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$, exactly the order in which those works are transmitted in the manuscript.

Goodall et al. (2015: 22) advance an altogether dependable theory concerning the relative chronology of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -corpus in stating that

It hence seems plausible to assume that the phrase tatra sūtratrayaṃ proktaṃ boddhavyam anupūrvaśaḥ indicates that one should understand the chronology of these three texts in due order: first, the Mūlasūtra, second the Uttarasūtra, and third the Nayasūtra. The fourth sūtra, the Guhyasūtra, in conjunction with the previous three texts comprise a compendium that is referred to as the Niśvāsa.

⁵⁹ catvāro] NW; catvāro(ḥ) K

pañcamam tu param | K; pañcaman tu para NW

Note that the Niśvāsamukha contains roughly 640 verses in total, extending over four chapters.

The theory attesting an originally separate identity to the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ gains further momentum if we consider the textual evidence provided by the colophons and chapter-colophons of the relevant witnesses. There is a substantial difference between the chapter-colophons of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the colophons to the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -corpus, and we shall therefore present these separately. The first chapter's colophon contains the phrase laukike dharme 'worldly religion'; the second and third reduce this segment to the term laukike 'worldly'; the fourth chapter colophon contains neither of these two expressions, since it does not treat worldly religion. Each begins with the phrase iti $ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukhatattvasamhit\bar{a}y\bar{a}m$, providing clear evidence that all four chapters have been regarded as belonging to a work entitled $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukhatattvasamhit\bar{a}$. Here are the chapter colophons of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ in full:

- iti niśvāsamukhatattvasaṃhitāyāṃ laukike dharmme prathamaḥ paṭalaḥ |.
- iti niśvāsamukhatattvasamhitāyām laukike dvitīyah paṭalah |.
- iti niśvāsamukhatattvasaṃhitāyāṃ laukike tṛtīyaḥ paṭalaḥ |.
- iti niśvāsamukhatattvasamhitāyām caturthah paṭalah |.

The colophons of the other four books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, however, differ both by way of formulation and classification of its referent text. In particular, these are the colophons of the first chapters of the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ and $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. Note that these colophons categorize those works as separate $s\bar{u}tras$, together comprising the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$:

- iti niśvāsatatvasamhitāyām mūlasūtre prathamah patalah | .
- iti niśvāsatattvasamhitāyām uttarasūtre prathamah patalah .
- iti niśvāsatattvasamhitāyām nayasūtre pāśaprakaranam prathamah patalah .
- iti niśvāsatattvasaṃhitāyāṃ⁶³ guhyasūtre prathamaḥ paṭalaḥ|.

As regards the most fundamental difference, the chapter-colophons of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ do not associate the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ with the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$

The complete colophon at the end of the first chapter of the Mūlasūtra in fact reads: iti niśvāsatatvasaṃhitāyāṃ mūlasūtre prathamaḥ paṭalaḥ ślo [sic] 23 'thus is the first chapter of the Mūlasūtra in the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā', followed by the number of verses. The second chapter colophon of the Mūlasūtra, however, runs: iti mūlasūtre dvitīyaḥ paṭalaḥ 'thus is the second chapter of the Mūlasūtra.' This is also the way the colophons of the Uttarasūtra, Nayasūtra, and Guhyasūtra appear in our manuscript. In other words, the first colophon of each of these books appears in its complete form, including the name of the compendium, the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā, while in the succeeding colophons this name is not mentioned, the chapter names appearing directly in the locative: °sūtre ... paṭalaḥ.

iti niśvāsatattvasamhitāyām] NW; iti śrīnihśvāsatattvasamhitāyām K

as closely as the colophons of the remaining four books associate their respective 'parent'-work with the compendium. This is indicative of a basic discrepancy between the textual histories of the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, $Nayas\bar{u}tra$, and $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ on the one hand, and the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ on the other—at least as regards their respective history before their conjunction as constitutive elements of the compendium.

Note that the chapter-colophons of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ state that the work professedly belongs to the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukhatattvasamhit\bar{a}$ whereas the remaining four books in their colophons attest to belong to the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$.

Secondly, the colophons of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ do not identify their referent text as an exponent of the $s\bar{u}tra$ -genre, whereas the colophons of the other four books do. Textual evidence shows that the term $s\bar{u}tra$ features in reference to titles of some of the works pertaining to the Mantramārga, such as the $Rauravas\bar{u}trasaigraha$ or the $Sv\bar{a}yambhuvas\bar{u}trasaigraha$. This, in turn, suggests that the term $s\bar{u}tra$, as it features in the colophons of the four books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, might possibly serve to identify the latter as a tantric text. The chapter colophons of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, by contrast, refer to the latter as the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukhatattvasamhit\bar{a}$.

In deliberately refraining from employing the term ' $s\bar{u}tra$ ' in the titular compound, they fortify our conception regarding the identity of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ as distinct from the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$. Whereas the latter is identified as tantric material, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ remains exoteric in nature.

The term $svarg\bar{a}pavarga$ is a brahmanical term⁶⁴ particular to the mode of expression in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (1.52, 4.1); this becomes especially clear when contrasted with the remaining works of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$. The first three books, the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, and $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ do not use this term. However, it appears once in conjunction with niraya ('hell') at $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 6.14 to describe the 'sphere of actions' $(karmabh\bar{u}mi)$. This may suggest that this term was not a distinctly Mantramārgic term. The unique term $svarg\bar{a}pavarga$ appears to reflect and reinforce the distinct nature of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, and emphasises its historical genesis as a work of probably separate origin.

The *Niśvāsamukha*'s introduction of the Mantramārga through the 'Five Streams'

As the 'face' of the compendium, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ heralds the Five Streams of (supra)mundane knowledge. In doing so, it recapitulates appropriated exoteric systems. At the same time, it announces the distinguishing features of the Mantramārga as supreme path of practice (to be expounded in the ensuing volumes of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$).

The term is employed in these and other brahmanical textual sources: Viṣṇupurāṇa 1.6.10; Brahmāndapurāna 1.16.15 and Bhāqavatapurāna 4.24.37.

The concept of the Five Streams ($pa\tilde{n}ca\ srot\bar{a}h$) is hence figuratively correlated both (1) to the five faces of Śiva as source and authority over the tenet-systems expounded, as well as (2) to the tenet-systems themselves. Therefore the $pa\tilde{n}ca\ srot\bar{a}h$ are instrumental in structuring the philosophical and religious systems presented in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha\ (1.26-27a)$ by means of the following five-fold taxonomy:

```
nandikeśvara uvāca |
śṛṇvantu ṛṣayas sarve pañcadhā yat prakīrtitam |
laukikaṃ vaidikañ caiva tathādhyātmikam eva ca |
a[[timārgaṃ ca mantrākhyaṃ]] --- |
Nandikeśvara said: all you sages, listen to that which is said to be five-fold: [1] worldly (laukikam), [2] Vedic (vaidikam), [3] relating to the soul (ādhyātmikam), [4] transcendent (atimārgam), and [5] Mantra (mantrākhyam) [...].
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The Laukika stream, as depicted in later passages of the *Niśvāsamukha*, springs from the western face, Sadyojāta, (3.196cd); the Vaidika originates from the northern face, Vāmadeva, (4.41); the Ādhyātmika flows forth from the southern face, Aghora, (4.42); the Atimārga issues forth from the eastern face, Tatpuruṣa, (4.131cd); and finally the Mantramārga is emitted from the upper face, Īśāna (4.135).

The account of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is special in that it is comparatively elaborate, as we shall find in the following in-depth presentation of the four exoteric, preliminary streams:⁶⁵

1. **The Laukika dharma**, as taught in the *Niśvāsamukha*, is framed and presented as a system of practice befitting uninitiated householders devoted to Śiva. It teaches this path of practice as follows:

```
kūpavāpīgrhodyāna --- |
--- tha maṇḍapāḥ |
dānatīrthopavāsāni vratāni niyamāni ca || 1.53
bhakṣyābhakṣyaparīhārañ japahoman tathārcanam |
jalāgnibhrgupāto hi tathānaśanam eva ca || 1.54
vidyamānanivṛttiś ca guruvṛddhābhipūjanam |
laukikam kathitam hy etad | 1.55c
```

[Attending to] wells, ponds, houses, gardens [[...]] [and] pavilions (mandapah), [making] donations, [going on] pilgrimages $(t\bar{\imath}rtha)$, fasting, [adhering to] religious observances and restraints; [eating] what may be eaten and avoiding what may not $(bhakṣy\bar{a}bhakṣya-par\bar{\imath}h\bar{a}ram)$; [engaging in] mantra recitations, sacrifices (japahomam)

The fifth stream, the Mantramārga, is mentioned, yet merely briefly alluded to, as we shall see in the ensuing sections.

and worship; [committing suicide by] throwing oneself into water or fire or from a cliff; fasting, renouncing possessions ($vidyam\bar{a}na-nivrttih$) and honouring teachers and aged people; this is what I have taught as laukika.

As the above extract itself professes in its last line, this is what the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa-mukha$ presents as a brief summary of Laukika dharma, which is more extensively presented in the ensuing chapters (1–3).

The first chapter calls for the making of a water-fountain, lotus-pond, temple-garden, and the offering of a house; bathing a *linga* in milk, clarified butter, curds, and water; the offering of flowers, fragrant items, incense, clothing, ornaments, edibles, banners, mirrors, and awnings; the offering of lamps and umbrella(s), cows, goats, sheep, buffaloes, horses and elephants; the offering of servants and maids; the offering consisting in cleansing and besmearing a *linga*; the offering of singing, dancing, and playing a lute and other musical instruments in the vicinity of a *linga*; keeping vigil on the eighth and four-teenth days of the dark half of the month; fasting and taking refuge in Śiva. This chapter also records a tradition of offering a certain *muktimaṇḍapa* to Śiva (1.114c–115b). A *muktimaṇḍapa* as an object of offering is little known elsewhere.⁶⁶

The second chapter calls for the making of a linga and installing it in a temple; constructing a temple and installing a figure of one of the following deities therein: Visnu, Brahmā, Skanda, Rudrānī, Ganeśa, the mother goddesses, the Sun (conceived of as deity), Agni, Indra, Kubera, Vāyu, Dharma or Varuņa; making a bridge; making a causeway on a muddy path; digging a water channel; making a hut, an abode or a pavilion; and giving different kinds of donations. A striking feature of this chapter is that its text provides us with material on traditions that are otherwise little known, or sometimes even not knowable through other sources at all. For instance, at 2.64, we come across a passage which records the practice of offering a woman. The text does not specify to whom the woman is to be offered, but the recipient is probably either a Brāhmin or Śiva, as the text constantly mentions these two recipients throughout.⁶⁷ If Śiva was the intended recipient here, then the text would allude to the practice of offering a Devadāsī, a [female] 'servant of god'. If a Brāhmin was intended as recipient, this would be unusual practice. However, because the text proceeds (2.65) with the offering of lovemaking with beautiful women —presented as a physical and not a symbolic act —, ⁶⁸ this also does not seem impossible. Whoever the intended recipient may have been,

⁶⁶ See 1.114c-115b and our annotation thereon (p. 252).

On one occasion the text (2.117 ff.) mentions other recipients too, but it does so while presenting a stratified hierarchy of recipients.

⁶⁸ To wit: ratisatran tu satatam varanārīsu dāpayet.

and whether or not the text is recording an actual practice, this custom is not known to us from other sources. The text teaches the worship of Kāmadeva (3.142c–146) on the thirteenth day of a fortnight. Although, the worship of Kāmadeva is not unknown, ⁶⁹ the emphasis on his worship among other major gods, such as Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Śiva, considerably elevates the status of the deity Kāmadeva. This suggests that the place of Kāmadeva as a divinity to be worshipped was relatively lofty during this period, or at least in the specific milieu where the text originated.

The third chapter, for its part, calls for the following: bathing in prescribed rivers or lakes; committing suicide in a river or in a fire; going on pilgrimage to places sacred to Śiva; and to those sacred to Viṣṇu; upholding observances; following procedures⁷⁰ for fasting and performing worship of Śiva and other deities that are perceived through a lens of individually assigned, and differing, degrees of worthiness;⁷¹ each of these has a particular day of the lunar fortnight

⁵⁹ See Benton 2006.94.

These procedures are observed during both halves of a month for the duration of one year.

These deities (or deified beings) are Brahmā, Agni, Kubera, Gaņeśa, the Nāgas, Skanda, the Sun, Śiva, Mahādevī, Yama, Dharma, Keśava, Kāmadeva, Śiva (a second time) and one's ancestors.

dedicated to their worship.⁷² The text informs us about various appropriate offerings such as a golden carriage, a weapon, or an emblem of each deity with that deity's name engraved on it (see 3.160ff). It also records a custom of

- Brahmā: [1] Brahmā, [2] Svayambhū, [3] Viriñci, [4] Padmayoni, [5] Prajāpati, [6] Caturmukha, [7] Padmahasta, [8] Omkārākṣara, [9] Caturvedadhara, [10] Sraṣṭṛ, [11] Gīrvāṇa, and [12] Parameṣthin.
- Agni: [1] Vaiśvānara, [2] Jātavedas, [3] Hutabhuk, [4] Havyavāhana, [5] Devavaktra, [6] Sarvabhakṣa, [7] Ghṛṇin, [8] Jagadāhaka, [9] Vibhāvasu and [10] Saptajihva. Since Agni is to be worshipped throughout the year, one form per month, the listing lacks two names.
- Kubera: [1] Dhanada, [2] Yakṣapati, [3] Vitteśa, [4] Nidhipālaka, [5] Rākṣasādhipati, [6] Piṅgalākṣa, [7] Vimānaga, [8] Rudrasakhā, [9] Kubera, [10] Paulastyakulanandana, [11] Lokapāleśvara, and [12] Yakṣendra.
- Gaņeśa: [1] Vighneśvara, [2] Gaṇapati, [3] Ekadanta, [4] Gajānana, [5] Gajakarṇa, [6] Tryakṣa [7] Nāgayajñopavītin, [8] Caturbhuja, [9] Dhūmrākṣa, [10] Vajratuṇḍa, [11] Vināyaka, and [12] Mahodara.
- The Nāgas: [1] Ananta, [2] Vāsuki, [3] Takṣaka, [4] Trirekhin, [5] Padma, [6] Mahābja,
 [7] Śaṅkha, and [8] Kulika.
- Skanda: [1] Viśākha, [2] Trivarṇa, [3] Umānanda, [4] Agnigarbhaja, [5] Gaṅgāgarbha,
 [6] Śaradgarbha, [7] Kṛttikāsuta, [8] Ṣaṇmukha, [9] Śaktihasta, [10] Mayūravāhana, [11] Pañcachaṭa, and [12] Kumāra.
- Sun: [1] Āditya, [2] Savitṛ, [3] Sūrya, [4] Khaga, [5] Pūṣan, [6] Gabhastimat, [7] Hiraṇyagarbha, [8] Triśiras, [9] Tapana, [10] Bhāskara, [11] Ravi, and [12] Jagannetra.
- Śiva: [1] Śańkara, [2] Devadeva, [3] Tryambaka, [4] Sthāņu, [5] Hara, [6] Śiva, [7] Bhava, [8] Nīlakaṇṭha, [9] Piṅgala, [10] Rudra, [11] Īśāna, and [12] Ugra.
- Mahādevī: [1] Umā, [2] Kātyāyinī, [3] Durgā, [4] Rudrā, [5] Subhadrikā, [6] Kālarātrī, [7] Mahāgaurī, [8] Revatī, [9] Bhūtanāyikā, [10] Āryā, [11] Prakṛtirūpā, and [12] Gaṇanāyikā.
- Yama: [1] Yama, [2] Dharmaraja, [3] Mṛtyu, [4] Antaka, [5] Vaivasvata, [6] Kāla, [7] Sarvalokakṣaya, [8] Ugradaṇḍadhṛt, [9] Mahiṣāsanayāyin, [10] Śāsitṛ, and [11] Narakādhipati. Since Yama is to be worshipped throughout the year, one form per month, the listing lacks one name.
- Dharma: [1] Dharma, [2] Satya, [3] Dayā, [4] Kṣānti, [5] Śauca, [6] Ācāra, [7] Ahiṃsā,
 [8] Adambha, [9] Rakṣā, [10] Lokasākṣin, [11] Vṛṣabha, and [12] Adṛṣṭa.
- Viṣṇu: [1] Keśava, [2] Nārāyaṇa, [3] Mādhava, [4] Govinda, [5] Viṣṇu, [6] Madhusūdana, [7] Trivikrama, [8] Vāmana, [9] Śrīdhara, [10] Hṛṣīkeśa, [11] Padmanābha, and [12] Dāmodara.
- Kāmadeva: [1] Anaṅga, [2] Manmatha, [3] Kāma, [4] Īśvara, [5] Mohana, [6] Pañcabāṇa, [7] Dhanurhasta, [8] Unmāda, [9] Vaśaṃkara, [10] Ratipriya, [11] Prītikara, and [12] Hṛdayāpahārin.
- Śiva: [1] Hara, [2] Śarva, [3] Bhava, [4] Tryakṣa, [5] Śambhu, [6] Vibhu, [7] Śiva, [8] Sthāṇu, [9] Paśupati, [10] Rudra, [11] Īśāna, and [12] Śańkara.

Twelve names are to be used for each of these deities during twelve months, starting from Mārgaśīrṣa to Kārttika for each fortnight on their respective *tithis*. In the case of some deities, the number of names does not match twelve (Agni, the Nāgas, Yama). We present here the names as attested in the text:

offering 'a golden man' (puruṣa) with the name of one's ancestor(s) on it on the new-moon and full-moon days (3.193–196). This injunction is not known from other sources.

Day of fortnight	Deity worshipped	Gift to be offered
Pratipad	Brahmā	golden lotus
Dvitīyā	Agni	golden goat
Tṛtīyā	Yakṣa	golden mace
Caturthī	Gaņeśa	golden elephant
Pañcamī	Nāgas	golden lotus
Şaşţhī	Skanda	golden peacock
Saptamī	Āditya	golden horse
Aṣṭamī	Śańkara	[golden] bull
Navamī	Mahādevī	[golden] lion
Daśamī	Yama	[golden] buffalo
Ekādaśī	Dharma	[golden] bull
Dvādaśī	Viṣṇu	[golden] Garuḍa
Trayodaśī	Kāmadeva	golden bow
Caturdaśī	Pārameśvara	[golden] bull
Amāvaśī and Pūrņimā	Pitrs	golden man

Table 1: Deities, their days, and appropriate offerings

The Kashmirian Saiddhāntika commentator Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha 73 — and also the South Indian author of the $Mrgendrapaddhatiṭīk\bar{a}^{74}$ — seem to share the same understanding of Laukika dharma as constituting socially meritorious deeds. For Kṣemarāja, however, author of a non-dualist commentary on the Svacchandatantra, it carries a diversity of connotations and encompasses the following topics: (admissable modes of) livelihood; law; the art of government; Āyurveda; Dhanurveda etc. 75 The $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$'s understanding of Laukika dharma is different: as is clear from the above discussion, it is not presented merely as primarily comprising of socially meritorious deeds, nor does it embrace Āyurveda, Dhanurveda, and law.

2. **Vaidika dharma** outranks Laukika in the five-fold hierarchy presented in the *Niśvāsamukha* and pertains to the four *āśrama*s. The *Niśvāsamukha* (4.1–41) teaches that observing the prescriptions pertaining to the four life-stages

See the commentary of Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha on *Mṛgendrakriyāpāda* 8.79: *tatra laukikāni tāvat karmāṇi vāpikūpaprapādīni pūrtākhyāni*|.

T. 1021, pp. 217, line, 15: kūpataṭākādikaraṇaṃ paraṃ pūrtam ucyate |.

Kṣemarāja's commentary on Svacchandatantra 11.44: laukikam vārtādandanītyāyurvedadhanurvedanāṭyavedādipratipādyakṛṣinayānayacikitsādivijñānam \mid .

⁷⁶ Niśvāsamukha 1.55d: vaidikam cāturāśramam.

results in a rebirth in the abode of Brahman.⁷⁷ Meanwhile, it should be noted that according to 4.24, a householder (grhastha) who merely performs rites, and does not cultivate $\bar{a}tmadhy\bar{a}nam$ (meditation on the Self) attains heaven only, which, technically speaking, counts as a 'worldly abode', since it belongs to the domain of $sams\bar{a}ra$ —in that regard the fruits are identical to those of the practice of Laukika dharma.⁷⁸ SANDERSON (2006: 157) observes:

The distinction between this and the Vaidika religion ($vaidiko\ dharmah$) is that the latter is the practice of the celibate life-stages. It comes above the Mundane in the hierarchy of paths because we are told that while the Mundane leads only to heaven (svargah), this may go beyond that transient reward to bestow [...] liberation.

Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha, 79 and the author of the $Mrgendrapaddhatiṭīk\bar{a}^{80}$ see the Vaidika stream as being concerned primarily with soma sacrifices 'and the like' $(somasaṃsth\bar{a}dir\bar{u}p\bar{a}ṇi)$. This understanding—as noted above—differs considerably from that of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Kṣemarāja, again, reiterates the categories of $yaj\~na$ taught in (some of) the $Kalpas\bar{u}tras$, 81 focussing on nitya, naimittika and $k\bar{a}mya$ sacrifices. 82

3. Ādhyātmika dharma is understood as the teaching of Sānkhya and Yoga:

ādhyātmikam pravakṣyāmi dakṣiṇāsyena kīrttitam | sāṃkhyañ caiva mahājñānam yogañ cāpi mahāvrate || 4.42 ||

[Now] I will teach the [dharma] called $\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmika$ with [my] southern face: [namely] the great knowledge of Sāṅkhya and Yoga, o you who observe the $mah\bar{a}vrata$.

Let us consider a noteworthy taxonomical irregularity: the classification of the teachings of the Sāṅkhya and Yoga as forming part of the Ādhyātmika system is unusual — all the more so since the Upaniṣads, conventionally hailed as pivotal exponents of the Ādhyātmika religion, curiously are not listed in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ as such. We do not, at present, have a ready explanation

Niśvāsamukha 4.39: evam yo varttate nityam sa yāti brahmalaukikam | brahmanā saha modeta brahmani sa tu līyate || .

Niśvāsamukha 1.52cd: laukikam sampravaksyāmi yena svargam vrajanti te |.

⁷⁹ In his commentary on Mṛgendrakriyāpāda, Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha writes (8.79): āmnāyo vedaḥ | taduktāni tu karmāṇy api karmakṛcchrajanyāni somasaṃsthādirūpāṇi iṣṭaśabdena prasiddhāni | .

Mṛgendrapaddhatiṭīkā T. 1021, p. 217: tat kṛcchraśabdena somasaṃsthādyātmakam iṣṭam ucyate | .

This presentation is generally in line with the threefold classification found in Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha's Mṛgendratantra, and the Mṛgendrapaddhatitīkā.

The commentary on Svacchandatantra 11.44: vaidikaṃ nityanaimittikakāmyayajñādisvarūpam |.

for this state of affairs. Medhātithi⁸³ and Kullūka,⁸⁴ commenting on a verse of the Manusmrti (2.117) — which, as we shall see, is probably the original impetus for the development of the fivefold scheme of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ — understand Ādhyātmika in the conventional sense: for Medhātithi, it is the knowledge of brahman,⁸⁵ and for Kullūka, it is something related to the Upaniṣadic knowledge of the Self.⁸⁶ Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha⁸⁷ follows the orthodox interpretation in stating $abhisandhirūpāṇi\ vairāgyātmakāni\,|$. The interpretation of Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha is moreover echoed by the author of the Mrgendrapaddhatitrika,⁸⁸ and Kṣemarāja,⁸⁹both of whom treat the term as referring to the teachings of Yoga and Sānkhya.

4. **Atimārga** refers to the Pāśupata system, which, in this text, is said to be twofold. ⁹⁰ That is to say, it refers to Atyāśramins and Lokātītas. ⁹¹ The first section paraphrases the *Pāśupatasūtras* in a fully versified form. The second section teaches the observances of the Kapālavratins and provides a systematic account of Kāpālika cosmology. ⁹² SANDERSON (2006: 158) writes:

... the Niśvāsamukha holds it ([i.e. Atimārga]) to be of two kinds (dviprakārakah). It outlines the first, which it calls 'the Observance of those beyond the Estates' (Atyāśramavrata) in a rendering of the enigmatic prose Pāśupatasūtra into verses that are clear (where they are not lacunose by dint of physical damage) and adds a small amount of information found neither in the Sūtras nor in Kauṇḍinya's commentary. The first level of the Atimārga, then, is that of the Pāñcārthikas. The remainder of the section on the Atimārga introduces us to a new form of devotion to Rudra, which it calls Kapālavrata ('the observance of the skull'), the Lokātītavrata ('the observance of those beyond the world') and the Mahāpāśupatavrata ('the observance of the Greater Pāśupatas'). It also refers to those who adopt this observance as the Mahāvratas.

⁸³ See JH \bar{A} (1932: 136).

⁸⁴ See N. R. ACHARYA (1946: 58).

 $[\]bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmikam\ brahmaj\tilde{n}\bar{a}nam\ |\ .$

 $[\]bar{a}dh u \bar{a}tm i kavidu \bar{a} \bar{a}tm opanisad vidu \bar{a} |$.

Bhatta Nārāyanakantha, commenting on Mrgendrakriyāpāda 8.79.

T. 1021.217: vairāgyaśabdenādhyātmikāny abhisaṃdhirūpāṇi pātañjalasāṃkhyāni (conj.; pātapañalāsaṃdhyāni MS) karmāṇy ucyante | .

The commentary on Svacchandatantra 11.44: $\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmikam\ s\bar{a}mkhyayog\bar{a}dipratip\bar{a}ditaprakrti-puruṣavivekajñānasarvavrttinirodhajñānādikam |$.

Niśvāsamukha 4.131: atimārggam samākhyātam dviḥpra $[[k\bar{a}ram\ va(r\bar{a})]]$ nane [4.131.

 $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha~(4.88).$

As we have noted on p. 54, the account given in the *Niśvāsamukha* may indeed be systematically rendered, but the truthfulness of its content can as of yet not be fully ascertained, since there is no further extant source material to compare and contrast it against.

The Svacchandatantra too (11.45–45) takes the Atimārga as inextricably linked to the Pāśupata system, and this is further spelled out in Svacchandatantra 11.179–184. The Siddhāntasamuccaya of Trilocana also makes this identification: atimārgaṃ punaḥ pāśupatādiḥ But Sanderson (2006: 158) points out that when Kṣemarāja comments on Svacchandatantra 11.43–45 and 11.179–184, he does not distinguish the Atimārga and the Mantramārga in terms of non-Āgamic Śaivism and Āgamic Śaivism: 95

Thus when Kṣemarāja comments on the same list of five when it occurs at *Svacchanda* 11.43c–45b he does not see its distinction between the 'Atimārga' and the fifth as a distinction between non-Āgamic and Āgamic Śaivism. According to him – and he is, after all, one of the most influential of Āgamic authorities – the knowledge of the 'Atimārga' mentioned in the text is knowledge of the externals of Āgamic Śaivism itself, while the fifth level is knowledge of the core of the same system.

Sanderson proceeds by cogently inferring (2006: 162–163) why the redactor(s) of the Mrgendratantra and the commentator Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha failed to associate the Atimārga with non-Āgamic Śaivism. ⁹⁶ We observe a complete misunderstanding of the sense of Atimārga in the Tantrālokaviveka of Jayaratha, who, commenting on the tantra at 13.346, asserts that the Atimārga refers to such systems as Sāṅkhya and Yoga, which, in his work, are elevated above the Laukika religion: $atimārgo\ laukikamārgātītam\ sāmkhya-pātañjalādi|$. It is not clear what Abhinavagupta, for his part, may have thought about the matter. Sanderson (2006: 163) concludes:

The term Atimārga, which I suggest we use for the non-Āgamic Śaivism of the Pāśupatas and related systems, is extracted, then, from a stage of the tradition which predates our famous commentators and perhaps even some of the Āgamas themselves. But I make no apology for putting it back to use: the dominion of these commentaries over later tradition need not extend to us.

As we have seen above, the Atimārga is elevated above the Ādhyātmika in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, the Svacchandatantra and the $P\bar{u}rvak\bar{a}mika$; yet in the Mrgendratantra, their positions are reversed. Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha (ad

⁹³ See Sanderson (2006: 158–160).

⁹⁴ T. 284, pp. 153, lines 1–2.

Note that 'non-Āgamic Śaivism' and 'Āgamic Śaivism' are Sanderson's translations for the terms 'Atimārga' and 'Mantramārga' respectively.

Note that for the author of the *Mṛgendrapaddhatiṭīkā* (T. 1021, p. 217), too, followers of the Atimārga are identified as Pāśupatas.

loc.), however, notes that the Atimārga should technically eclipse the Ādhyāt-mika, advancing the contention that a sequencing according to the loftiness of the purpose (arthakrama) surpasses an order mirroring simply the chronological progression in which individual sections are to be read ($p\bar{a}thakrama$).⁹⁷ It is worth noting that the $Mrgendrapaddhatit\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}^{98}$ quotes verses 8.78–79 from the Mrgendratantra, but, in commenting on them, alters the constellation of the hierarchy found therein.⁹⁹

5. The Mantramārga is identified as coterminous with Āgamic Śaivism. The Niśvāsamukha (1.56c) plainly enunciates: mantrākhyāś ca tathā śaivāḥ 'and the followers of the mantra[-path] are Śaivas.' For the author of the Mṛgendratantra¹⁰⁰ and Kāmika,¹⁰¹ the term conveys the same meaning. It is not clear, however, whether it is understood in the same way by Bhaṭṭa Nārāyaṇakaṇṭha, when he comments on Mṛgendrakriyāpāda 8.79, or whether Kṣemarāja¹⁰² understands it thus, or whether the author of the Mṛgendrapaddhatiṭīkā does.¹⁰³

The above account sketches how the five major traditions discussed in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ are presented through an equation with the 'Five Streams'. These, in turn, are structurally embedded in the notion of five faces of Sadāśiva being their source. Can it be ascertained, however, whether the concept of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s five streams is an innovation of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ or not? There is a distinct possibility that it was influenced by a passage in the Manusmrti, for we encounter a related concept already attested in the Manusmrti (2.117), which has been adopted later by the Visnusmrti (30.43): 104

He should greet first the person from whom he received knowledge—whether it is the knowledge of worldly matters, of the Veda, or of the inner self. (OLIVELLE 2005: 101)

We have grounds to assume that $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 1.26cd ($laukikam\ vaidikam\ caiva\ tath\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmikam\ eva\ ca$) is formulated on the basis of the Manusmrti (2.117ab), because the formulation in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ —in its complete form—is very similar to its counterpart in the Manusmrti: the only difference is the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s caiva in place of $v\bar{a}pi$ in the Manusmrti—the meaning of these two expressions, however,

⁹⁷ See SANDERSON 2006: 162.

 $Mrgendrapaddhatit\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}$ (T. 1021, pp. 217–218).

The Mrqendrapaddhatitīkā describes the Atimārga as excelling the Ādhyātmika.

¹⁰⁰ See Mṛgendrakriyāpāda 8.78.

¹⁰¹ See $P\bar{u}rvak\bar{a}mika$ 3.20 ff.

¹⁰² Ksemarāja's gloss on Svacchandatantrodyota 22.44.

¹⁰³ T. 1021.218.

Peter Bisschop is to be credited with the reference to this item of evidence.

remains the same. Thus, we think, it is likely that the conceptual framework of the five streams of the Niśvāsamukha is based on the model of the three categories of knowledge as expounded in the Manusmṛti, with an addition of two more elements: the Atimārga and the Mantramārga. It is therefore quite possible that the Niśvāsamukha first developed the notion of Five Streams in expansion of the basic notions of the Manusmṛti.

Furthermore, a scheme of Five Streams features in the *Guhyasūtra* (12.17–18), although with significant discrepancies vis-à-vis the *Niśvāsamukha*. On one hand, the fact that Śaiva Siddhānta is revealed by Īśāna presents a point of congruence between the two expositions. On the other, the remaining four streams differ from those presented in the *Niśvāsamukha*. In the account of the *Guhyasūtra*, the remaining four streams exclusively refer to Pāśupata schools and are associated with the four faces of Śiva as follows: Vaimala is revealed by Tatpuruṣa; Pramāṇa by Aghora; Kāruka by Vāmadeva; and the doctrine of Lakulīśa by Sadyojāta:¹⁰⁵

pañcabhis tu tataḥ sarvaṃ yad bhūtaṃ yac ca bhāvyati | $\bar{\imath} \bar{s} \bar{a} n e^{106}$ śaivam utpannaṃ vaimalaṃ puruṣ $\bar{a} t^{107}$ smṛtam || $pramaṇaṃ hṛdayāj jātaṃ vāmadevāt tu kārukam |^{108}$ sadyāc ca lakul $\bar{\imath} \bar{s} \bar{a} n tah^{109}$ pañcabhedāh prak $\bar{\imath} t t t t t \bar{a} h$ ||

Thus all creation, as well as what is in the future to be created, [is effected] by the [se] five [Brahmamantras/faces]. It is on [the basis of] Isana, [that] Siva came into being; the Vimala [school] is understood to be [emanated] from the Puruṣa; the Pramāṇa [school] springs from the Hṛdaya; from Vāmadeva, however, the Kāruka [came to be]; from the Sadyojāta, the doctrine of Lakulīśa [is proclaimed]—these five divisions have been taught.

Given the congruities between the system of revelation of Śaiva clusters of knowledge as extrapolated both in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ and in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, it appears possible that a common source, drawn from earlier Śaiva works, informed the conception of five streams of knowledge as they (re)appear in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ and the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. It cannot, as of yet, be established with a reasonable degree of certainty, whether earlier sources already depicted $\bar{I}\dot{s}ana$ as the supreme herald of the Mantramārga, which is the account given in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. ¹¹⁰

For discussion of these four divisions of Pāśupata sects, see Sanderson (1988: 664–667).

 $[\]overline{1}$ iśane N; iśanam K; iśane W

puruṣāt] conj.; puruṣā NW; puruṣaṃ K

hṛdayāj jātaṃ vāmadevāt tu kārukam] conj.; hṛdayāj jātaṃ vāmade --- n tu kārakam N; hṛdayā ⊔n tu kārakam K; hṛdayā jātaṃ vāmade ⊔n tu kārakam W

sadyāc ca lakulīśāntaḥ] conj. Sanderson; sadyāc ca lakulīśāntāḥ NK^{pc} ; sadyoc ca lakulīśāntāḥ K^{ac} ; sadyāmba lakulīśāntāh W

The model of revelation presented in the figurative garb of the Five Streams of tantric Śaiva knowledge is found in a broad range of later scriptures. According to this model, the *Siddhānta*-

What is striking about the way this taxonomy is relayed is that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ mukha is amongst the earliest extant textual sources presenting Siva as a five-headed divinity. Hans BAKKER (2002), for example, has already noted that Siva is not presented as a five-headed deity in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$. In the same vein, Törzsök (2013) mentions that a five-headed form of Siva is absent in the early layer of the Niśvāsacorpus and other relatively early Saiva sources. Instead, Törzsök posits (2013: 152-153) that a four-faced depiction is attested to in source material associated with the Atimārga; mention of a fifth face emerges in the context of the revelation of tantric Saivism through the Saiva Siddhanta. This has subsequently been adopted also by the non-Saiddhāntika traditions. As BAKKER shows, it is conceivable that the idea of Siva's having five faces may have developed under the influence of the concept of the five Brahmamantras, 111 which are attested to in the Taittirīyāranyaka (10.43-46) and the $P\bar{a}supatas\bar{u}tra$, works which predate the $Nisv\bar{a}samukha$. The five mantras are known as 'Sadyojāta', 'Vāmadeva', 'Tatpuruṣa', 'Aghora', and 'Īśāna' effectuating an exact correspondence between the names of the five faces of Siva and the five Brahmamantras as presented in the Niśvāsamukha. We can therefore regard the notion that the five faces of Siva were based on the literature and traditions centred around the five Brahmamantras as both credible and established, for the identification of the five faces with the five Brahmamantras appears to be a relatively late development in Śaivism. 112

The textual evidence for the emergence of the fifth face as supreme enunciator of the Mantramārga is somewhat complex. In the account of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, the fifth, $\bar{I}\dot{s}\bar{a}na$ -face is associated with the Śaiva Siddhānta. That section, however, does not specify whether the five Brahmamantras are identified with the Five Faces of Śiva—or rather of 'Sadāśiva', as he is known in his five-headed form. The Guhya- $s\bar{u}tra$ (12.17–18), on the other hand, introduces the idea that five forms of knowledge

tantra are proclaimed by the Īśāna face; the Bhairavatantras from Aghora; the Vāmatantras from Vāmadeva; the Bhūtatantra from Sadyojāta; and the Gāruḍatantra from Tatpuruṣa (see HATLEY 2010: 3). Since we are, at this point, primarily concerned with sources antecedent to the Niśvāsa, we do not actively pursue anything other than a tangential mention of the model as it features in later sources.

¹¹¹ See Bakker (2002: 400).

Consult Bakker (2002: 400). As regards the textual evidence within the Niśvāsamukha, it merely mentions that Śiva has Five Faces, without further questioning or explaining that state of affairs: Niśvāsamukha 3.196cd: paścimenaiva vaktrena laukikam gaditam sadā; Niśvāsamukha 4.41: vedadharmmo mayā proktah svarganaiśreyasah parah uttarenaiva vaktrena vyākhyātaś ca samāsatah; Niśvāsamukha 4.42: ādhyātmikam pravakṣyāmi dakṣiṇāsyena kīrttitam sāṃkhyañ caiva mahājñānam yogañ cāpi mahāvrate; Niśvāsamukha 4.131: atimārggam samākhyātam dviḥprakāram varānane pūrveṇaiva tu vaktrena sarahasyam prakīrttitam; Niśvāsamukha 4.135: pañcamenaiva vaktrena īśānena dvijottamāh mantrākhyam kathayiṣyāmi devyāyā gaditam purā .

 $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (4.135).

are derived from the five Brahmamantras; it is not clear, however, from that account, to what degree they are to be associated with the five faces of Sadāśiva.¹¹⁴

GOODALL et al. (2015: 38), after extensive scrutiny of the textual evidence regarding a connection of the five Brahmamantras with Sadāśiva in the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$ -corpus, conclude:

... it appears that the notion of a five-headed figure known as Sadāśiva ... whose five heads are the brahmamantras, is absent from the earliest $s\bar{u}tras$ of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ but is beginning to take shape in the latest layer of the text, namely that constituted by the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$.

Later works which feature the concept of 'Five Streams of knowledge' include the Svacchandatantra, 116 the $P\bar{u}rvak\bar{a}mika$, 117 and the $Jayadrathay\bar{a}mala$. 118 In contrast with these three texts, the five domains of religious activity listed in the $Mrgendrakriy\bar{a}p\bar{a}da^{119}$ and $Mrgendrapaddhatit\bar{i}k\bar{a}$ have undergone a significant process of transmogrification—both in wording and with regards to sentence-structure. The stratification in the Mrgendratantra (8.79) is as follows: [1] the mundane (loka); [2] the Vedic $(\bar{a}mn\bar{a}ya)$; [3] the transcendent (Atimārga); [4] the internal (abhisamdhi); and [5] the Śaiva.

The Niśvāsamukha as a preface to the Mantramārga

In order to assess the type and scope of the *Niśvāsamukha*'s contribution to the Mantramārga at large, we will more closely investigate the narrative framework of the *Niśvāsamukha*. Unfortunately, the text is lacunose, for which reason we are not able to represent every structural aspect with a fully satisfactory degree of precision. Although, as we shall see in a separate section, the *Śivadharmasańgraha* provides an abundance of textual parallels for the greater part of the *Niśvāsamukha*, there is an acute lack of textual parallels in the *Śivadharmasańgraha* from which to

Goodall et al. (2015: 36) likewise did not locate the five-faced form of the deity Sadāśiva in the $s\bar{u}tras$ of the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$.

Although all the ensuing sources refer to the same five streams—with the exception of the Svacchandatantra—they do not feature an association of the five faces of Śiva with the Five Streams.

Svacchandatantra 11.43c–45b: laukikaṃ devi vijñānaṃ sadyojātād vinirgatam | vaidikaṃ vāmadevāt tu ādhyātmikam aghorataḥ || puruṣāc cātimārgākhyaṃ nirgataṃ tu varānane | mantrākhyaṃ tu mahājñānam īśānāt tu vinirgatam || .

Pūrvakāmika 3.17c-18b: laukikam vaidikam caiva tathādhyātmikam eva ca || atimārgam ca mantrākhyam tantram etad anekadhā |.

¹¹⁸ Sanderson (2006: 157, fn. 7).

¹¹⁹ Mṛgendrakriyāpāda 8.78-79: lokāmnāyātimārgābhisandhiśaivātmakānyanoḥ | karmāṇi kṣetrikādīśagaṇakāngāntakāni tu || karmatatkṛcchravairāgyajanyāni triṣu dhāmasu | yogavijñānajanyāni paratah parato mune || .

¹²⁰ It is worth noting that the great majority of references to the Mantramārga occur in the frame-story of the Niśvāsamukha.

draw in substitution for deprecated sections of the frame-story.¹²¹ That being said, we can nevertheless make a number of relevant observations regarding the narrative framework on the basis of the surviving textual evidence.

First of all, the overarching structure of the *Niśvāsamukha* is cast in the form of a narrative that presents the different tenet-systems by way of divine dialogue between Īśvara and Devī. This setting unmistakably insinuates that whatever is being announced is sanctioned by divine authority and judgment. Since the Mantramārga is presented as the 'highest form of religion' in this particular context, the narrative framework of the *Niśvāsamukha* directly conveys the idea of the supremacy of the Mantramārga.

Secondly, in elevating the Mantramārga above the other tenet-systems, the text makes skilful use of insinuative symbolism, both allegorical and topographical in nature. For example, the Vedic and pro-Vedic sacred topography is directly and emphatically juxtaposed with that of the ascendant Śaiva school. The underlying 'power-struggle' is resolved by an astonished Ricīka witnessing a score of sages, originally residents of the indisputably brahmanical Naimiṣāraṇṇa (Naimiṣā forest), ¹²³ relocating to the Devadāruvana (Pine Forest), a holy Śaiva site. Upon consulting Mataṅga, Ricīka learns that the sages were inspired to do so upon having learnt that Brahmā and Visnu themselves were initiated in the Pine Forest (1.16–18).

Religious activities associated with the Naimiṣa forest have been described in passages contained in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata^{125}$ and in some of the $Pur\bar{a}nas$. The sages of the Naimiṣa forest are also presented as being engaged in performing extensive sacrifices, which evokes an unmistakenly Vedic atmosphere in the context of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$; all the more so since it is precisely the Vedic sages of the Naimiṣa forest being engaged in elaborate rituals which we most easily associate with this holy site. In fact, the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ itself, as well as many a $Pur\bar{a}na$, is traditionally presented as having been recited here for the first time—in brief, this place is imbued with special significance in brahmanical traditions.

The Devadāruvana, by contrast, is imbued with deep-rooted cultural associations

For a comparative list of the parallels between the $\acute{S}ivadharmasa \acute{n}graha$ and the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, see page 92 ff.

For example, the way the system of initiation in the Saiva religion (1.18) differs from the Vedic initiatory system (1.8) is emphasized in a context that gives clear preference to the former.

The Naimiṣa forest is known to us from the contexts of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ and the $Pur\bar{a}na$ as one of the places of origin for the brahmanical tradition. Indeed, the very narrative of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ itself begins "with the arrival of the $s\bar{u}ta$ in the Naimiṣa forest" (ROCHER 1986: 81). More extensive information of descriptions of the Naimiṣa forest as they feature in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ can be gleaned from ROCHER (1986: 70, 71, 81, 141, 161, 164, 168, 185, 226 and 232) and HILTEBEITEL (2001), in particular the third chapter (pp. 92 ff.).

For a rendition of the myth related to the Devadāruvana, see JAHN (1915, 1916), DEUSSEN (1917: 119–120), and GONDA (1963: 211–212).

¹²⁵ See Hiltebeitel (2001: 131).

¹²⁶ Consult, for example, Brahmāndapurāna 1.1:165 and Bhāgavatapurāna 1.1:4. See also BISS-CHOP (2006: 217).

that, to the common mind, are inextricably linked to the Śaiva traditions. After all, it is the place where, according to Śaiva lore, *liṅga*-worship originated. We encounter the myth of the Devadāruvana for the first time in the *Skandapurāṇa*. ¹²⁷ BISSCHOP (2006: 80) summarises the myth as follows:

... as they[, the sages,] were practising tapas in Devadāruvana, some person appeared, engulfed in tejas, in the form of a twice-born, a naked man, with a skull in his hand, his body covered with ashes and with an erect penis. At this sight they got angry and went after him, impelled by jealousy. The man, frightened and beaten by them, did not really get angry, but the blows and sticks that they raised were repelled and fell on their sons, wives and themselves in particular. The linga of that Lokapa fell down, after which he disappeared. With the falling of that linga in the middle of their hermitage, the virility of the four classes of beings was damaged. They have come to Deva for protection, that he may make them successful again.

To our knowledge the *Niśvāsamukha* is the first text to render Śaiva teachings against the backdrop of the Devadāruvana, thereby contextualising it as countermodel to the traditional setting in the Naimiṣa forest. We assume that in rendering the exodus of the sages to the Devadāruvana, thus favouring it over the Naimiṣa, the *Niśvāsamukha* may be fielding an allegorical ploy to illustrate the emergence of a new, professedly superior, religion with an identity that is to be perceived as distinct from the mainstream traditions.

What is striking in this rendition is that parts of the *Niśvāsamukha* make claims about Vedic deities and associated protagonists that would not only appear uncharacteristic in their original Vedic setting, but outright heterodox, such as the idea that Brahmā, Viṣṇu and all the sages (1.19, 1.27–28) were initiated in the Śaiva system of initiation (1.18), especially in the alien setting of the Devadāruvana.

The Niśvāsamukha: A Mirror to Early Šaivism

When discussing textual parallels in the source material to the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$, ¹²⁸ we have noted that the text draws upon a substantial number of earlier works. Let us now dissect the particular modus operandi by which the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ appropriates previous systems of thought. It does so chiefly by granting limited authority to the latters' textual exponents by way of subsumption into the lower four echelons of the five-fold taxonomy of tantric Śaivism. As we shall see, this stratagem becomes

Note that the account of the Devadāruvana in the $\acute{S}ivapur\bar{a}na$ postdates the rendition in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$.

Refer to p. 18 above.

apparent upon scrutiny of recontextualized and reframed passages borrowed from the *Manusmṛti*, as well as the 'profile of ideas' 129 expressed therein.

First of all, besides a long passage on the procedures of linga-worship and other Śaiva teachings, there is a host of standard practices readily traceable to established brahmanical traditions: pilgrimage (3.1 ff.); offering water and sesame seeds to ancestors (2.39); offering a two-faced cow (2.49); offering land (2.56); constructing gardens 1.61); planting trees (2.25); making food offerings (2.37) etc. The fact that the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ is directly borrowing from the Manusmrti, without any change in content, further demonstrates a close affiliation with the brahmanical traditions. For instance, the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ (3.155) gives a list of the ancestors of the four castes (varna) as follows:

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pitaras somapā vipre kṣatriye tu havirbhujāḥ |
ājyapā vaiśyayonau tu śūdrāṇān tu sukālinaḥ ||
```

In the case of a Brāhmin, the ancestors are [called] Somapās; in the case of a Kṣatriya, Havirbhujas; in the case of a Vaiśya, Ājyapas; and for Śūdras, [they are called] Sukālins.

A close juxtaposition of the Manusmrti (3.197) testifies to an act of borrowing on the part of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$:

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somapā nāma viprāṇāṃ kṣatriyāṇāṃ havirbhujaḥ | vaiśyānām ājyapā nāma śūdrāṇāṃ tu sukālinaḥ ||
```

The ancestors of Brāhmins are called Somapas; of Kṣatriyas, Havirbhujs; of Vaiśyas, Ājyapas; and of Śūdras, Sukālins. 130 (OLIVELLE 2005: 118)

In choosing to appropriate 131 textual source material from the Manusmrti, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is implicitly accepting the former as an authoritative source. Thereby, we should be inclined to argue, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ tacitly assents to the social system that was conceived by the brahmanical tradition, and formulated in the Manusmrti.

This above constellation results in what one might call the brahmanical-śaiva hybrid-nature of the tenet system presented in the *Niśvāsamukha*. This can be well-illustrated by the many passages which relate donative practices, for example. First of all, in all instances the recipient is either a Brāhmin or the deity Śiva (e.g. at 2.54 and 2.98) himself, albeit in his symbolical representation as a *linga*. The way Brahmanism is presented as subordinate and adjuvant to Śaivism, moreover, is well

The term 'profile of ideas' (*Ideenprofil*) has been adapted from Grünendahl in Schreiner, ed. (1997: 234), and is here employed with comparable connotations.

In the same way, Manusmṛti 11.214 defines the atikṛcchra observance as ekaikaṃ grāsam aśnīyāt tryahāṇi trīṇi pūrvavat | tryahaṃ copavased antyam atikṛcchraṃ caran dvijaḥ || , which is echoed in Niśvāsamukha 3.40 as follows: ekaikaṃ bhakṣayed grāsaṃ trīṇy ahāni jitendriyaḥ | trirātropavasec caiva atikṛcchraṃ viśodhane || .

For a detailed list of parallels in the *Niśvāsamukha* that have been traced to the *Manusmṛti*, see p.74 ff.

illustrated by a passage of the Niśvāsamukha (2.115–121) which presents a stratified hierarchy of worthiness of recipients of gifts—as we shall see, this schema clearly favours the Śaiva perspective. The prelude to this teaching is wrapped in divine dialogue, with Devī inquisitive about the most deserving recipient of munificent acts, a question that is directly addressed by Śiva (2.115) himself. Śiva, having given a general statement about the act of giving—the merit of which endures for eternity (2.116)—lists the degree of worthiness of the respective recipients (2.117–121) in hierarchical sequence. 132

This passage attests to the fact that individuals granted high social standing in the brahmanical traditions feature as worthy recipients of donative practices, yet the most worthy recipient remains the knower of Śiva (śivajñānī). This is an indicator that Śaivism builds its theoretical framework on the legacy of its brahmanical predecessors, a view that has first been voiced in Sanderson's influential and extensive contribution 'The Śaiva Age: The Rise and Dominance of Śaivism during the Early Medieval Period' (2009). ¹³³ In that chapter, Sanderson developed the theory that Śaivism appropriated major aspects of brahmanical culture. He convincingly argues (2009: 302) that the model of Śaivism is a combination of Śaivism and Brahmanism:

The religion of the Śaivas, then, was not Śaivism alone but an expression of religious syncretism propelled by Śaivism and Brahmanism. This fact is born[e] out not only by Śaiva literature but also by the biographical data and the epigraphic records of the activities of Śaiva kings. ¹³⁴

In order to establish the Mantramārga as the supreme avenue of religious practice, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ renders the religious framework by way of Five Streams, therein making skilfull use of potent allegorical symbolism. The depiction of Śaiva religion as embodied by Śiva displaying 'five faces' presents each of the faces as source and legitimizing authority of an equally valid 'stream of teaching'. At the same time, the faces (together with the respectively associated 'streams of teaching') nevertheless differ as to their respective rank and soteriological fruit. This mirrors well our assessment that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ grants scriptural and traditional authority to all systems presented whilst reserving supremacy for the Mantramārga, extolled as being the highest path of practice. As we learn in the text, this 'highest stream' of the Mantramārga issues forth from the fifth, uppermost face ($\bar{1}s\bar{a}na$):

adhunā tad ato viprās saṃvādam umayā saha |
īśvarasya tu devasya mantramārgaṃ vyavasthitam || 4.134 ||
pañcamenaiva vaktreṇa īśānena dvijottamāḥ |
mantrākhyam kathayisyāmi devyāyā qaditam purā || 4.135 ||

See p. 85 for a detailed presentation.

Contained in Genesis and Development of Tantrism, ed. Shingo Einoo, 2009, pp. 9-350.

Sanderson (2009: 201 ff.) puts forward the conceptual edifice of a Śaiva-Brahmanical order—a system that corresponds very closely to the model presented in the *Niśvāsamukha*.

catuḥsrotā mayā pūrvaṃ śrutā devyāḥ prasādataḥ | te sarve kathitās tubhyaṃ nissandigdhā dvijottamāḥ $\parallel 4.136 \parallel$ pañcaman tu param srotam śi --- |

Now, then (tad ato), o Brāhmins, the discourse of the god Śiva (īś-varasya) with Umā [is as follows]; the Mantramārga is settled with the fifth face, [that is to say] the Īśāna [face], o Brāhmins! I shall tell [you of] the [path] of mantra which was formerly related to Devī. I heard [about] the four streams before by the grace of Devī: all those I have told you of, o best of Brāhmins, you who are free of doubt. The fifth is the highest stream, [[...]]

The process we witness here is a nascent precursor to what came to be known as 'inclusivism', a term originally coined by the German scholar Paul Hacker 135 to denote a strategy of 'subjugation via appropriation' of other systems of thought and practice. This concept has been refined by a number of subsequent scholars who have shown that, though at first glance marked by tolerance, an 'inclusivist' approach to alien systems of thought and practice contains the underhand implication of 'benign' annexation. In the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, the welcoming aspect on the surface level of this approach is well laid out in the following extract: 136

prāsādam kārayitvā tu viṣṇum ye sthāpayanti hi || 2.27 || viṣṇulokam vrajanty ete modante viṣṇunā saha | brahmāṇam skaṃdam rudrāṇīm gaṇeśam mātaram ravim || 2.28 || vahnim śatakratum yakṣam vāyum dharmmañ jaleśvaram | yo yasya sthāpanan kuryāt prāsāde tu suśobhane || 2.29 || pūjaye parayā bhaktyā so 'mṛto hy asya lokatām | 2.30ab |

Those who install Viṣṇu, having had a temple constructed [for him], will go to the world of Viṣṇu and rejoice with Him. If someone worships [whomsoever among] Brahmā, Skanda, Rudrāṇī, Gaṇeśa, the Mothers (mātaram), Sun, fire, Indra (śatakratum), Kubera (yakṣam), Vāyu,

Consult Hacker (in Oberhammer, ed. 1983: 11–28).

Note that the pluralistic veneer of the inclusivist approach taken in the Niśvāsamukha is recurrently accentuated to the effect that further illustrative examples can be easily invoked. Let us consider Devī's question (3.60) regarding salvific methods, and Śiva's reply (3.61 ff.), for instance, which is a case in point. As a prelude, Devī asks Śiva:

By resorting to which god will fasting bear great fruit? And how should [the god] be worshipped? Tell [me this] by your grace. (3.60)

In his reply, Śiva does not only refrain from directly claiming a monopoly of authority, nor from demanding the installation of himself as the solitary and exclusive object of worship; he does not even condemn the worship of other godheads, which is a striking feature in itself. Besides Śiva-worship (3.146 ff., 188 ff. and 3.92 ff., 175 ff.), he recommends the worship of different godheads, however, and thus, accepts their (subservient and restricted) authority.

Dharma or Varuṇa (*jaleśvaram*) with highest devotion, having installed them in a beautiful temple, he becomes immortal and [achieves] the world of that [particular deity].

Our contention that the term 'inclusivism' is applicable to the approach taken in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ in particular, and to the Śaiva community at large, is shared by Sanderson (2009: 301) who contends that the Śaiva 'attitude': ¹³⁷

elaborated an inclusivist model of revelation that ranked other religious systems as stages of an ascent to liberation in Śaivism.

It is apparent that, in presenting the four 'lower streams' as preliminary, foundational tenets of tantric Śaivism, the Niśvāsamukha implies their tangential, ancillary position vis-à-vis the more portentous Mantramārga. The tantric 'path of mantra', for its part, is expounded at great length in the subsequent volumes of the Niśvāsatattvasamhitā. The Niśvāsamukha quite clearly subordinates these supposedly 'inferior' belief-structures to the path of tantric Śaivism (as borne out in the following extract):

```
laukikaṃ kathitaṃ hy etad vaidikañ cāturāśramam || 1.55 || --- |
--- proktā lokātītā mahāvratāḥ |
mantrākhyāś ca tathā śaivā ato 'nye kupathe sthitāh || 1.56 ||
```

This is what I have taught as Laukika. The four- $\bar{a}\acute{s}rama$ system is called Vaidika, [...]¹³⁸ [...]¹³⁹ The world-transcenders are the Mahāvratas and those who are called mantra[-path-follower]s are Śaivas. [Any] others apart from these are situated on a wrong path.

If we cast a sober glance at the bottomline mechanics of the argument voiced in the *Niśvāsamukha*, we can swiftly ascertain that some strands of religio-philosophical practice are appropriated into the Śaiva tenet system with the remainder simply

The word "inclusivism", popularised in Hindu studies by Paul Hacker, is a better approximate of the process in India by which a multitude of various sects, philosophies, gods, and modes of worship are united under a single overarching concept, whether the late mediæval idea of six $\bar{a}stika\ darśanas$ [orthodox philosophies] or the modern term Hinduism.

In his recent study, 'Unifying Hinduism', NICHOLSON (2010: 185) has argued that the term 'inclusivism' not only accurately describes the intellectual and spiritual milieu of remote mediæval India, but even forms part and parcel of modern-day 'Hinduism':

The lost part of the text, with a substantial degree of certainty, must have listed the Sāṅkhya and Yoga streams, which, as we recall, together constitute the \bar{A} dhyātmika stream.

¹³⁹ In this lacunose section, we should, in all likelihood, expect the term Atimārga to feature in 56a.

being declared invalid. This has the effect that—though presented in the garb of pluralistic open-mindedness—syncretic Śaivism alone remains as the exclusively unmistaken path. Who, we should ask, are these 'others, situated on a wrong path' (anye kupathe sthitāḥ)? First of all, without mentioning these explicitly, the 'inclusivistic' teaching of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ excludes two well-known religions of India from its ambit of soteriological legitimacy: Buddhism and Jainism. ¹⁴⁰ In fact, these two distinguished religions are not mentioned in the 'revelation of the Five Streams' in any overt manner. Likewise, the other so-called 'heterodox' (lit. $n\bar{a}stika$) religions are excluded, which to our mind gives credibility to the contention that early Śaivism as presented in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ developed around the teaching of brahmanical principles. As we shall see below, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ constitutes an early platform representative of a model that, with varying degrees of intensity, remains an intrinsically operative feature both of modern day 'Hinduism' as well as of its antecedent traditions.

The Niśvāsamukha as a precursor to modern 'Hinduism'

As the reader will know, many a study of the concept of 'Hinduism' has been published in recent years, with the consequence that, presently, divergent and conflicting interpretations with regards to the origins of the umbrella-term of 'Hinduism' abound. Studies in the pre-colonial religious history of 'Hinduism', postcolonial critiques of the term, as well as 'post-critical' assessments of the latter offer an initially bewildering multiplicity of perspectives that the neophyte will find difficult to navigate. Peter BISSCHOP¹⁴² relates how we

have gone a long way to show that already prior to the arrival of the British a notion of a 'unified Hinduism' had taken shape, even though the term itself may not yet have been in use, and that it is therefore not the British Orientalists who are to be credited with the 'creation of Hinduism'.

In debating the question of the degree to which the *Niśvāsamukha*'s world-view might foreshadow 'modern-day Hinduism', one cannot avoid defining the term 'Hin-

Von Stietencron's contribution (1995) may be helpful for arriving at a more specific delimitation of which the traditions are that are denied validity. First of all, the primary evidence he consults is more extensive. Secondly, he opts not to view the primary evidence in the context of inclusivism and thereby offers a contrasting interpretation of the nature and the purport of the textual evidence itself. Von Stietencron mentions the eleventh-century Somaśambhupaddhati's assigning of religious traditions to different levels, in accordance with their respective levels of attainment, along the path of thirty-six Śaiva tattvas. Unsurprisingly, Śaiva texts feature at the apex, yet Buddhists, and Jains still supersede the Śāktas, Smārtas and Naiyāyikas.

See Halbfass 1997, Lorenzen 1999, Sweetman 2001, 2003, Nicholson 2010, Bisschop 2016, and Fisher 2017.

¹⁴² Bisschop 2016: 39.

duism' more distinctly. As Peter BISSCHOP (2016: 41) noted, one of the pivotal insights we have gained "from the discussion about the origins of the notion of Hinduism as a single religion is that it shows that the British Orientalists were clearly building on earlier notions that had been developed not so much under a colonial regime but by missionaries and ministers who tried to make sense of the, in their eyes, heathen religion they encountered in India." The early conception of a unified 'Hinduism' might well have come about partly as an effect of the interpretative lenses of European visitors and missionaries during the 17th and 18th centuries, all "men of faith, with a strong belief in their own intellectual competence" (*ibid.*). Meanwhile, we should not discard outright the possibility that the concept of a unitary religion concocted by these early pioneers might have in fact been based on at least partially correct assumptions, or might have accurately reflected some traits of a rudimentary self-presentation found among some members of the socio-religious milieu contemporaneous to the alien observer. NICHOLSON (2010: 2), in this regard, presents a balanced account, that echoes our own contention closely:

The idea of Hindu unity is neither a timeless truth nor a fiction wholly invented by the British to regulate and control their colonial subjects.

If, as established, unificatory tendencies in the religious domain in fact predate the orientalists' accounts, ¹⁴³ is it perhaps worthwhile to investigate whether such currents were nascent—or possibly thriving—even prior to the advent of alien missionaries and religious functionaries? Since it is this very question that we seek to answer, we shall take to a somewhat reductionist ¹⁴⁴ definition of the term 'Hinduism' that sidesteps the complications which early 20th-century nationalist innovations, for example, would inject it with. If we relate to it as 'a spiritual and cultural system marked, *inter alia*, by an inclusivist approach to other religious and cultural systems of thought and practice', we are capable of explaining how modern-day 'Hinduism' functions as an umbrella term that subsumes otherwise mutually exclusive religious models—polytheistic, monotheistic, or pantheist tenet-systems, for

See Bisschop (op. cit. 41–48) and Sweetman (2003) for a clear and pithy presentation of the 17th to 18th century textual evidence regarding the formation of the concept of a unitary South Asian religion that eventually came to be associated with the term 'Hinduism'.

For a more intricate discussion of the various religious identities, their group-affiliations, beliefs, corresponding godheads, philosophies, rituals, modes of worship and other distinguishing features, the reader is referred to Nicholson (2010: 185 ff.). We are aware that a multiplicity of other, relevant characteristics could have been included in our definition of the term 'Hinduism', characteristics that would likewise have remained fundamentally intact for several millennia. One example would be the concept of sanātana dharma—supratemporal (lit. 'eternal') religion—as opposed to religions 'established' at a certain point in time by their respective 'founder' (e.g. as in Islam). We could also have included the primacy of Śiva and Viṣṇu as supreme deities in our definition of the term 'Hinduism', since it is textually attested to in the Niśvāsamukha and likewise persists as a characteristic feature until the present day. Since these aspects are, however, not central to our discussion of inclusivism, they are consciously omitted in our (admittedly functional and minimalistic) definition.

example. This 'conglomerate entity' as a new conceptual unit is then contrasted with 'outside' systems. Modern day 'Hinduism' hence functions as a taxonomical 'meta-model' for a diversity of systems in the very same way syncretic Śaivism provided the superstructure for the brahmanical-śaiva hybrid system laid out in the Niśvāsamukha. The continuity of the inclusivist model, we argue, persists from its earliest explicit formulations, textually verifiable in the Niśvāsamukha, right until the ascent of modern-day 'Hinduism' (as we have defined it)—albeit the traction of the inclusivist framework would have fluctuated in accordance with the vagaries of regional and epochal developments.

Parallels and Borrowings

As already indicated above, the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ seems to be largely dependent on outside sources to create its body of text. We know by now that the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ mentions five religious systems—[1] Laukika, [2] Vaidika, [3] Ādhyātmika, [4] Atimārga, and [5] Mantramārga—and elaborates upon the first four in depth, while only alluding to the fifth. Since the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ concerns itself with the introduction of the first four types of religious systems, it is only natural that it draws from the relevant sources of these systems. Although we do not find parallels to what the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ teaches in all cases, it is likely that in many an instance the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ borrowed from other sources.

A large part of the Laukika section of the Niśvāsamukha may have been composed on the basis of previous or contemporaneous sources—we do encounter similar materials in other texts, both Śaiva and non-Śaiva. Thus, the Aṣṭamūrti hymn (1.30–41), the list of the pañcāṣṭaka (3.19–22), the list of rivers (3.2–8) and the famous Liṅgodbhava-myth (1.172–185) are probably not inventions ex nihilo, ascribable to the author of the Niśvāsamukha alone. The descriptions of the Cāndrāyaṇa (3.43), Yaticāndrāyaṇa (3.45), Śiśucāndrāyaṇa observances (3.46), and the names of the ancestors of the four castes (3.155) are borrowed from the Manusmṛti. The Vedic section (4.2–41) of the Niśvāsamukha as well has partly borrowed from the Manusmṛti. As we have discussed above, the Ādhyātmika section, presenting the systems of Sāṅkhya and Yoga, appears to be modelled on the basis of earlier sources that were possibly originally disjunct. The Atimārga sections (the presen-

Likewise, shorter, individual sections incorporated into the fabric of the Niśvāsamukha also testify to the fact that the text has drawn from earlier sources: Niśvāsamukha 1.167c–168b is exactly paralleled by Śivadharmaśāstra 1.14c–15b; Niśvāsamukha 2.2 is closely paralleled by Śivadharmaśāstra 3.77c–78b; Niśvāsamukha 2.91cd is redolent of Śivadharmaśāstra 12.72; the notion of a gradation of recipients (pātra) in the Niśvāsamukha 2.117–19 also appears to have a connection with the account in Śivadharmaśāstra 7.69–71. (See p. 81 for further details) Niśvāsamukha 1.2ab is paralleled by Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa 1.7:180ab and 1.21:170cd, and Viṣṇupurāṇa 1.6:36ab; Niśvāsamukha 1.126c–127b is paralleled by Skandapurāṇa 28.31abcd; Niśvāsamukha 1.71ab is closely paralleled by Skandapurāṇa 27.24ab (See p. 25 above).

¹⁴⁶ Refer to p. 19.

tation of teachings of the Pāñcārthas and Kāpālikas) are also fashioned by drawing from sources pertaining to those traditions.¹⁴⁷

This fact has significant implications for the way that one should engage with the external source-material which has found its way into the textual fabric of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. On the one hand, parallels abound; on the other, borrowed insertions are, more often than not, recontextualised—at times even contorted. In some cases, external sources render the original context of the source material and thereby provide contrasting reference points, against which to gauge the degree of distortion in the corresponding presentation of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$.

Although it is certainly of value for cultural and religious historians to find that the text of the Niśvāsamukha preserves some archaic materials which are otherwise unknown to us, we nevertheless have to tread cautiously in our effort to pursue a balanced and dependable extraction of information from the work. The cosmological system of the Kapālavratins—a division of the archaic Pāśupata branch of Śaivism—is a case in point. On the one hand, the Niśvāsamukha is the only existing source to preserve a systematic account of the cosmology of the Kāpālikas (SANDERSON 2006: 163) that we know of; on the other, that very fact makes it nigh-on-impossible to verify the accuracy of the portrayal. We should therefore hesitate to prematurely draw any definite conclusions regarding the ways of the Kāpālikas in particular, and the Pāśupata school at large, based solely on the rendition of the Niśvāsamukha. 148

Parallels with other Books of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā

Among the textual parallels that we shall examine more closely, let us commence with the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$. We shall begin with the first three $s\bar{u}tras$: the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$ and $Nayas\bar{u}tra$. Com-

There are a few texts that have citable parallels with the Niśvāsamukha and that, being unquestionably younger than the Niśvāsamukha, we are not going to discuss individually: the division into five streams of knowledge found in Niśvāsamukha 1.26c–27b is paralleled in Pūrvakāmika 1.17c–18b; the Aṣṭamūrti-hymn in Niśvāsamukha 1.32–39 is paralleled in Prayogamañjarī 1.19–26, Tantrasamuccaya 1.16–23, and Īśānagurudevapaddhati 26.56–63; and Niśvāsamukha 2.82c–86b is paralleled by Somaśambhupaddhati 1.6:5–8, Kriyākramadyotikā (§ 67, p.134), and Ātmārthapūjāpaddhati (attributed to Suprabhedāgama). While the first two lines (Niśvāsamukha 2.82c–83b) are found in the Jñānaratnāvalī fol. 126b, the last two lines (Niśvāsamukha 2.85c–86b) have also been attributed there to the Suprabhedāgama (GOML MS R 14898, p. 144).

On the other hand, the Pāśupatas, and their subschool, the Kāpālikas, as a corollary of being proto-Śaiva groups hence differ inherently less intensely from the 'new orthodoxy' advanced in the Niśvāsamukha than the brahmanical elements absorbed therein originally did. It might therefore be argued that the account of the Kāpālikas and Pāśupatas in the Niśvāsamukha is less likely beset by stark distortion, and one can concede some ground to that objection. Still, we will only be able to ascertain the probity of the descriptions in the Niśvāsamukha once further material will have surfaced; after all, we have noted significant alterations elsewhere, e.g. in instances where a supposedly close commentary inverts the taxonomical framework of its reference text. (I am alluding here to the way the Mṛgendrapaddhatiṭīkā (T. 1021, pages 217–218) quotes verses 8.78–79 from the Matanga.)

paring the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ against the bodies of text in these works, it becomes apparent that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ has no textual parallels in the $Uttaras\bar{u}tra$, few in the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$, some in the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$, and substantial amounts in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. As a general rule, these textual parallels, are quite explicit and readily identifiable, although in the section topiclizing cosmology, phrasing differs to a wavering degree between the $M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra$ and the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$.

As we noted, Goodall presents a well-founded argument regarding the likely chronological order wherein the individual works of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā were probably composed. In theory, this would have allowed us to infer rudimentary generalities with regards to likely directions of borrowing. As the ensuing investigation of textual parallels shall bear out, however, we do not have solid evidence to prove that any of the works within the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā-compendium borrowed from another work of the corpus, one significant instance excluded. As we shall presently attempt to demonstrate, it is much more likely that the works of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā—irrespective of their relative age—have borrowed from outside, antecedent source(s). After all, Goodall Isa shows "that the sequence of thirty-six tattvas may have developed in the Niśvāsa-corpus itself, in part by borrowing specifically from the Rauravasūtrasaṅgraha"; therefore a theory based on more widespread borrowing appears not too far fetched.

Let us investigate, first of all, the textual parallels the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ shares with the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$. The sections on Yoga in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (4.50ff) and the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ (4.105ff) are strikingly alike. The phrase in 4.60ab $prthv\bar{v}$ $kathinar\bar{u}peṇa$ $\acute{s}rnu$ dehe $yath\bar{a}$ $sthit\bar{a}$ in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ matches the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$'s verse 2.23 nearly to the letter. Another noteworthy parallel is the list of eight yogic postures in the

For example, the textual basis of the cosmology taught in the Niśvāsamukha (4.100 ff.) and the cosmology of the Mūlasūtra (5.3 ff.) are quite akin. Goodall (2016: 106–8) notes that the cosmology presented in the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā was not originally uniform (p. 106), since "there were (at least) two different early tantric extensions of the Sāṅkhyas' tattvakrama", and that the account displayed in the work was hence gradually conceived. In sum, Goodall shows that

what the testimony of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ shows is that even some of those theological features of the Śaivasiddhānta which we have become accustomed to thinking of as defining characteristics of the religion were either absent entirely in early times (e.g. $\bar{a}nava-mala$) or have been evolving steadily (the tattvakrama, the bhuvanakrama).

Refer to footnote 57 on page 30.

As we shall see at a slightly later stage (p .65), it appears that the author—or editor—of the Niśvāsamukha might have played a role in the redaction of chapter sixteen of the Guhyasūtra, the section where the Kedāra myth is expounded. In that specific instance, we hold, textual borrowing could have occurred between those two works of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitācompendium.

¹⁵² Goodall 2016: 108.

Niśvāsamukha and the Nayasūtra. By name, these are: Svastika, Padmaka, Bhadra, Ardhacandra, Prasārita, Sāpāśraya, Añjalika and Yogapatṭa.

The verse which records this list in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (4.50) reads:

 $svastikam\ padmakam\ bhadram\ tv\ arddhacandram\ pras\bar{a}ritam\ |\ s\bar{a}p\bar{a}\acute{s}rayam\ a\~{n}jalikam\ yogapattam\ yath\bar{a}sukham\ ||$

After facing north and then assuming a yogic posture, [such as one of the following:] [1] svastika, [2] the lotus-posture (padmaka), [3] bhadra, [4] arddhacandra, [5] $pras\bar{a}rita$, [6] $s\bar{a}p\bar{a}\acute{s}raya$, [7] $a\~{n}jalika$, [8] yogapatta, in whatever posture is comfortable [for him]

The corresponding verse in the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ (4.14c–15b) is almost identical: 153

svastikam padmakam bhadram arddhacandram prasāritam || sāpāśrayam añjalikam yogapaṭṭam yathāsukham |

'The svastika, the lotus-posture (padmaka), the bhadra, the half-moon posture (ardhacandra), the stretched out posture (prasarita), the back-rest-assisted posture ($s\bar{a}p\bar{a}\acute{s}rayam$), the $a\~njalika$, the yoga-band[-assisted] posture (yogapattam), at ease GOODALL et al. (2015: 469)

The only difference is that where the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ reads arddhacandram, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ reads tv arddhacandram. In this context, $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 4.65c–66d and $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ 3.21c–22d¹⁵⁴ may also serve as evidence for the definite affinity between the two texts. Since this is a well-known list of yogic postures that would be textually rendered in other sources, it is possible that both texts have borrowed it from another source or from two different sources.

The descriptions of $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$ in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and in the $Nayas\bar{u}tra^{155}$ are also closely related. We see that both texts teach three types of $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$: kumbhaka, recaka and $p\bar{u}raka$. The definitions of kumbhaka, recaka and $p\bar{u}raka$ are fundamentally the same in both texts, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s being more elaborate and the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$'s more concise. Further, there are two additional categories

Later on, the Nayasūtra presents the eight yogic postures in a slightly different phrasing: $\bar{a}sana\bar{m}$ padmaka \bar{m} baddhv \bar{a} svastika \bar{m} bhadracandrakam | $s\bar{a}p\bar{a}\acute{s}raya\bar{m}$ yogapaṭṭam $\bar{a}s\bar{i}na\tilde{n}$ ca yath $\bar{a}sukham$ | 4.105 ||.

The Niśvāsamukha's version runs as follows: divyadṛṣṭiḥ prajāyeta yadā tanmayatān gataḥ || sarvavidyāḥ pravartante sarvaṃ pratyakṣato bhavet | siddhaiś ca saha saṃbhāṣaṃ yadā tanmayatān gataḥ || . The version of the Nayasūtra, in turn, is constituted thus: siddhaś caiva svatantraś ca divyasṛṣṭiḥ prajāyate || ṣaṇmāṣād dhyānayogena divyasiddhiḥ prajāyate || trailokye yah pravartteta pratyakṣan tasya jāyate || .

The rendition in the Niśvāsamukha displays prāṇāyāmaṃ pravakṣyāmi triṣprakāraṃ samabhyaset || 4.54 || virecyāpūrya saṃruddhaṃ kumbhakaṃ parikīrttitam | pūrayec ca svakaṃ dehaṃ yāvad āpūritaṃ bhavet || 4.55 || pūrakas tu samākhyāto prāṇāyāmo dvitīyakaḥ | niṣkrāmayati yo vāyuṃ sva[[dehā]] --- || 4.56 || sa recakas samākhyātaḥ prāṇāyāmas trtīyakaḥ || 4.57ab. The Nayasūtra's version is as follows: recanāt pūraṇād rodhāt prāṇāyāmas trayaḥ smṛtaḥ | 4.111ab.

relating to $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$ taught in the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$: external and internal. The $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ (4.113d) states that the internal $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$ is of four kinds, the fourth being $supras\bar{a}nta$ —this detail is not found in the $Nisv\bar{a}samukha$, despite the latter's generally more exhaustive treatment of the matter.

However, we do find a close connection between these two texts in the section on $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{a}$, 'fixation.' $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 4.57c–61 teaches four types of fixation, in the following order: those of air, fire, earth, and water. The $Nayas\bar{u}tra$, for its part, teaches five types of $dh\bar{a}ran\bar{a}$, which sequentially are defined as those of air, fire, earth, water and ether. Both texts show their account of meditative fixation relating to the same first four elements, but the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ adds 'ether'. With this unusual sequence, these two texts stand apart from other Śaiva sources. 158

Another topic treated by both texts in their yoga-section, and commonly taught in the Śaiva yoga system, is karaṇa. Karaṇa is a technical term for what the yogin does with his upper body once his lower limbs have assumed a yogic posture and he is about to engage in the practice of $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$ ('breath control').¹⁵⁹ What is taught in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ (4.51) and in the $Nayas\bar{u}tra$ (4.106ab) is effectively the same procedure; the wording of the verses differs slightly, with neither text employing the term karana.¹⁶⁰

Cosmographical descriptions are also shared by the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$, including accounts of the forty Śaiva sites with corresponding homonymous heavens known as the $pa\~nc\=astaka$, the 'five ogdoads', which seem closely related. It is striking, for instance, that $Ni\acute{s}v\=asamukha$ 3.22ab is hypermetrical, as is the corresponding hemistich of $Guhyas\=utra$ 7.116ab. Both texts present their listings of these places in congruence with regard even to the order of the individual items, with only negligible variation in the names: $Ni\acute{s}v\=asamukha$ 3.23a calls one world $vastr\=apada$, while the corresponding reading of the $Guhyas\=utra$ (7.117c) is $bhadr\=apada$. $Vastr\=apada$ is attested in a wide range of relevant sources, such as $Mah\=abh\=arata$ 3.80:108b, Svacchandatantra 10.887a $\=ls\=anagurudevapaddhati$ 17.197, and $Uttarak\=amika$ 23.136. The occurrence of $bhadr\=apada$ as a place particularly sacred to Śiva and his followers, however, is not. We assume therefore that the list of the $Guhyas\=utra$ in this instance must have been subjected to (wilful or inadvertent) corruption. Although $vastr\=apada$ transpires in many sources, the original name might have been

Nayasūtra 4.111cd: sāmānyād bahir etāni punaš cābhyantarāni ca || .

Nayasūtra 4.115–116: vāyavīn dhāraye 'nguṣṭhe āgneyīṃ nābhimadhyataḥ | māhendrīm kaṇṭhadeśe tu vārunīṃ ghaṇṭikeṣu ca \parallel 4.115 \parallel ākāśadhāraṇā mūrdhni sarvasiddhikarī smrtā | ekadvitrścatuhpañca udghātaiś ca prasiddhyati \parallel 4.116 \parallel .

We find a different sequence of meditative fixation taught in Rauravasūtrasangraha 7.6–10, Svāyambhuvasūtrasangraha 20.4–28, Matangayogapāda 35c–65, Kirana 58.18c–26b, etc., which follow instead this order: fire, water, sovereign (īśa) and nectar (amṛta). For more details, see TAK3 s.v. dhāranā.

¹⁵⁹ See TAK2 s.v. karana for further details.

The Niśvāsamukha runs as follows: baddhvā yogāsanam samyak rjukāyah samāhitah | jihvān tu tāluke nyasya dantair dantān na samsprset || ; and the Nayasūtra: tālujihvo dantāsparsī samako nāsadrstigah | .

Bhastrāpada, 161 although it occurs only in a handful of sources, such as Skandapurāna 125-128, Śivadharmaśāstra 12.108a, 162 and Śivadharmaśaigraha 7.22a. For the Śivadharmaśāstra's testimony concerning the form of this toponym we consulted two early Nepalese witnesses—one 163 records bhastrāpada whereas the other 164 has vastrāpada. To many South Asian ears these words are almost homophonous, and this no doubt explains the discrepancy in transmission. 165 Many further such instances of small variation occur: where the Niśvāsamukha (3.25b) reads thaleśvara, the Guhyasūtra (7.120d) attests to sthaleśvara. This seems again an insignificant variation, thaleśvara being a local variant attributable to the regional pronunciation in the mind(s) of the scribe(s).

All in all, the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ follows standard orthography more closely than the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. It is, however, not always the case that the readings of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ are consistently superior to those of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. For instance, in the case of $amr\bar{a}tike\acute{s}vara$, the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ seems to attest to $ambr\bar{a}tike\acute{s}vara$, which has been emended to $amr\bar{a}tike\acute{s}vara$ (see below)—which is the reading the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ provides. As the $pa\~nc\=astaka$ is a common topic in Śaiva sources, this list, shared by both texts, does not entitle us to conclude that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ borrowed this textual portion from the $Guhyas\=utra$. It appears more likely that both texts are dependent on an earlier, most probably non-tantric, Śaiva work for the provision of this list. If we are right in our interpretation, in borrowing the list from an earlier, external source, the $Guhyas\=utra$ adds an extra hemistich, marked in bold, as the concluding remark for each group of eight. This is done in order to summarize the soteriological significance of each ogdoad in the context of Śaiva cosmology. We present the two lists juxtaposed below:

Niśvāsamukha 3.19–25

amareśam prabhāsañ ca naimiṣam puṣkaran tathā | āṣāḍhan diṇḍimuṇḍiñ ca bhārabhūtiñ ca lākulim ||

Guhyasūtra 7.112–121

amareśam prahāsañ ca naimiṣam puṣkaran tathā | āṣāḍhin diṇḍimuṇḍiñ ca bhārabhūtim salākulim ||

pratyātmike mṛtā ye tu te vrajanty eva tatpadam |

pratyātmike] conj.; pratyātmikā NKW

¹⁶¹ BISSCHOP 2006: 31 and 186.

Refer to the Nepalese manuscript with the reel \mathbb{N}_{2} B 7/3, fol. 44v. line: 4.

¹⁶³ A 1028/4, fol. 46v. line 4.

¹⁶⁴ A 1082/3, fol. 40v. line 4.

Hans Bakker, in a personal communication dated 16th of October 2015, noted that a "similar variant is found in *Mahābhārata* 3.80.108b, where the critical text has Vastrāpada (with wriggle), while the Southern Recension has Bhadrāpada (not Bhastrāpada)". He further remarks: "Bhastrāpada is only found in the *Śivadharma*, the *Skandapurāṇa*, and some pre-angkorean inscriptions", for which reason the original name "might indeed have been Bhastrāpada. But this name, 'original' or not, is not found in the *Guhyasūtra*, nor in the *Niśvāsamukha*".

hariścandram param guhyam hariścandram param guhyam quhyam madhyamakeśvaram | quhyam madhyamakeśvaram || guhyam guhyam] K; guhyam guhya° NWśrīparvatam samākhyātañ śrīparvatam samākhyātañ jalpeśvaram atah param || jalpeśvaram atah param | jalpeśvaram atah] N; jāleśvaram atah K; jalpaśvaram atah W amrātikeśvarañ caiva amrātikeśvaram caiva $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}lan\ tathaiva\ ca$ $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}lam\ tathaiva\ ca\parallel$ amrātikeśvaram] em.; ambrā --- N; amdhrā \sqcup K; ambrātike \sqcup W, mahākālam | em.; mahākāla NW; $mah\bar{a}k\bar{a}las~K$ kedāram uttaman guhyam kedāram uttamam guhyam $mah\bar{a}bhairavam\ eva\ ca\parallel$ $mah\bar{a}bhairavam\ eva\ ca$ guhyam | NW; śuddham Κ guhyāstake mṛtā ye tu $te \ vrajantar{\imath}ha \ tatpadam \parallel$ qayāñ caiva kurukṣetram gayāñ caiva kuruksetran nakhalan kanakhalan tathā nakhalam kanakhalan tathā gayāñ caiva] NW; gayā caiva K vimalañ cāṭṭahāsañ ca $vimala\tilde{n}$ $c\bar{a}ttah\bar{a}sa\tilde{n}$ camāhendraṃ bhīmam aṣṭamam ∥ $m\bar{a}hendram\ bh\bar{\imath}mam\ astamam \parallel$ atiguhye mṛtā ye tu atiguhyam vrajanti te te] NW; ca K vastrāpadam rudrakotim bhadrāpadam rudrakoṭim $avimuktam \ mah\bar{a}balam$ $avimuktam \ mah\bar{a}balam \parallel$ rudrakotim avimuktam] em.; rudrakotim avimukta NW; rudrakoti avimuktam K

gokarṇaṃ bhadrakarṇṇaṃ ca svarṇṇākṣaṃ sthāṇum aṣṭamam ||

chagalaṇḍaṃ dviraṇḍañ ca mākoṭaṃ maṇḍaleśvaram | kālañjaraṃ samākhyātaṃ devadāruvanan tathā ||

śankukarnnan tathaiveha thaleśvaram atah param | snānadarśanapūjābhir mucyate sarvakilbiṣaiḥ || gokarṇaṃ rudrakarṇṇañ ca svarṇākṣaṃ sthāṇur aṣṭamam | gokarṇaṃ bhadrakarṇṇaṃ] em.; gokarṇa --- karṇṇañ NW; gokarṇa rudrakarṇṇañ K, svarṇākṣaṃ sthāṇur aṣṭamam] em.; svarṇā --- raṣṭamam NK; svarṇa ⊔ raṣṭamam W eteṣv api mṛtās samyag bhittvā lokam aśeṣataḥ | dīpyamānās tu gacchanti atra sthānesu ye mrtāh |

chagalaṇḍaṃ dviraṇḍañ ca mākoṭaṃ maṇḍaleśvaram || kālañjaraṃ samākhyātan devadāruvanan tathā |

śańkukarṇan tathaiveha
sthaleśvaram ataḥ param ||
eteṣv api mṛtā ye tu
bhittvā lokam aśeṣataḥ |
dīpyamānās tu gacchanti
sthānāṣṭakam idaṃ priye ||
sthānāṣṭakam idaṃ] em.; sthā --- midam NK; sthānya ⊔ W

The list of the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$ in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ appears in the Laukika section, more precisely, the section wherein the text conveys the religious duties of uninitiated lay followers. The locations listed in connection with the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$ clearly correspond to famous Śaiva pilgrimage sites. As we can see from the extract above, the listing of the 'five sets of eight' as they are displayed in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ does not provide the names for each group of eight; conversely, they do feature in the case of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra^{166}$ and in other significant Śaiva tantric works (in $Sv\bar{a}yambhuvas\bar{u}trasangraha$ 4.47–55, for example). The list in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, however, does display the epithets 'most secret' ($param\ guhyam$) in reference to Hariścandra; Madhyamakeśvara, in turn, is referred to as secret (guhyam). Further, Kedāra and Mahābhairava are here given the epithet 'extreme[ly] secret' ($uttamam\ guhyam$).

Each ogdoad in the *Guhyasūtra* (7.123–124) has been assigned its particular name: *pratyūt-mika*, *guhya*, *atiguhya*, *pavitra*, and *sthānu*.

Niśvāsamukha 3.20 ff. HansBAKKER, in a personal communication dated 16 October 2015, opined that the use of the terms (guhyam, param guhyam and uttamam guhyam) might not refer to any further, particular group of sites, but instead reflects a more generic use which is employed merely to emphasize the gravitas of the sites they already qualify.

Hans Bakker, (ibid.), notified us that "Guhyas \bar{u} tra 7.115a does not qualify Kedāra as

Regarding the direction of borrowing amongst the two works, Hans Bakker argued, in short, that the author of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ must have borrowed the list from the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, adding hemistiches ¹⁶⁹ after the description of each ogdoad; he would have done so in order to recast the original list in accordance with the dogmatic particularities of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. But we suspect that the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ did not borrow this list from the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, since there is evidence to suggest that the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ may have been composed before the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$.

We base this contention regarding the relative dating on the grounds that the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ (1.1–4) considers the compendium to be complete $(samp\bar{u}rna)$ without the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, which is therein described as merely 'informing' or 'complementing' $(pus\dot{t}a)$ the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -corpus. This would mean that the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ antedates the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, which in turn indicates that at a previous stage, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -compendium would have consisted of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ and the other three $s\bar{u}tras$ alone. This is all the more plausible if we remember that the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ and the other three $s\bar{u}tras$ have tantric content and are hence also topically distinct from the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. What is more, as we have seen above, the references to the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ are situated at the very beginning and end of the latter and are therefore likely to be later insertions included with the intent to craft a retroactive link between the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ -corpus.

There is an additional line at the end of the section in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (3.25cd) which reminds us of the pre-tantric connotations of the $pa\~nc\=astaka$. The writer of this line does not appear to regard these places as counterparts to the respective Śaiva worlds (bhuvana) known, from a list of cosmic correlatives, by the same name: $sn\=anadar\'sanap\=uj\=abhir mucyate sarvakilbiṣaiħ$ 'by bathing, beholding or performing worship [there] one becomes free from all sins.' Immediately after that ($Ni\acutesv\=asamukha$ 3.26), however, the text suggests that the divine ogdoads ($pa\~nc\=astaka$) are located above the egg of Brahmā ($brahm\=anda$). It also mentions that those who die in one of the pilgrimage sites of the worldly $pa\~nc\=astaka$ will proceed to the corresponding world of the same name in the divine $pa\~nc\=astaka$, from which they shall not have to return.¹⁷⁰ Thereby a correlation is established of the earthly

atiguhya—indeed one of the five names of the ogdoads—but as uttamam guhyam." Yet we would like to point out that the Śivadharmaśāstra lists the five sets of ogdoads with specific naming (see BISSCHOP 2006: 30–32).

Guhyasūtra 7.113ab, 115cd, 117ab, and 118cd–119ab. Hans BAKKER, however, (ibid.), conveyed his belief that the Guhyasūtra is the younger text, and that its redactor might also have recast individual portions of the Niśvāsamukha to streamline it in deference to the profile of ideas expressed in the Guhyasūtra. In his own words, he deems it more

likely that the hemistiches given in bold in $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 7.113ab, 115cd, 117ab, and 118cd–119ab ..., which are missing in the Mukha text, are additions through which the author of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ adapted the Mukha text to the later doctrine.

Cf., for example in $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 7.113ab.

pilgrimage sites known as the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$ with the cosmic $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$.¹⁷¹ The textual evidence for a connection between cosmic and earthly pilgrimage sites in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is briefer than the more elaborate presentation in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$, yet it is no less explicit.¹⁷²

The extra lines inserted at the end of each group of eight in the extract of the Guhyasūtra above also reflects the correlation of the divine pañcāṣṭakas with their forty mundane counterparts. For instance, explaining the properties of the first group, the text mentions: pratyātmike mṛtā ye tu te vrajanty eva tatpadam 'whoever dies in [the fivefold set of eight known as] Pratyātmikā certainly ventures forth to the corresponding world.' Thus, the five ogdoads, as presented in the context of the Guhyasūtra, reflect a tantric view of the cosmos. The Guhyasūtra itself, however, cannot readily be credited with incorporating these ogdoads into Śaiva cosmology. in our view, the Lokātīta-Pāśupatas¹⁷³ are more likely to have been the first to propel this development; only thereafter did the followers of the Mantramārga proceeded to gradually integrate these places in their cosmology.¹⁷⁴

In this vein, it is to be noted that the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra^{175}$ also records a list of $pa\~nc\=astaka$, albeit with some variation in naming. The list in the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ likewise refers to the pilgrimage centres and in like manner provides a label for each group. 176

Another significant point of topical overlap between the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the

The Śaiva cosmology is the 'order of the universe' according to the Śaivas. In other words, it refers to the levels of hells, $p\bar{a}t\bar{a}las$ 'netherworlds' and other bhuvanas 'worlds' that are described, for instance in chapter 5 of the Parākhya, or chapter 8 of the Kiraṇa, or chapters 4–7 of the Guhyasūtra, or chapter 10 of the Svacchanda. Some people might prefer to refer to a Śaiva cosmography, a description of the cosmos. What makes it Śaiva is that no other group makes the claim that the universe has quite this shape. The Purāṇic cosmography, for example, is much more limited, since it restricts itself to the brahmāṇḍa 'egg of Brahmā.'

The *Guhyasūtra*, for its part, gives a detailed presentation of a fully developed hierarchy of cosmic counterparts to the earthly *pañcāṣṭaka*s.

gacchanti bhitvā brahmāṇḍam eṣu sthāneṣu ye mṛtāḥ | pañcāṣṭakam idan divyaṃ yaṃ gattvā na nivartate || 3.26 || . 'Those who die in these places ascend, penetrating the [shell of the] egg of Brahmā (brahmāṇḍam), to [the respective world in] this divine set of five groups of eight [worlds bearing the same names as the pilgrimage sites], upon reaching which (yaṃ gatvā) he will not be reborn [in this world].'

¹⁷³ Presented in Niśvāsamukha 4.88ff.

The Śaiva cosmos begins with the world of Kālāgnirudra and reaches up to the *parama* ('highest') Śiva, that is to say: the ultimate reality in and of the system ($M\bar{u}las\bar{u}tra~5.1-2$). Dominic GOODALL defines the structure of Śaiva cosmology (email of 5th November 2014) as follows:

¹⁷⁵ Śivadharmaśāstra 12.108 ff (A 1082/3, fol. 40v4–41r2). Refer to p. 86.

Note that Bisschop (2006: 27–28) argues that this list may represent an archaic phase of its history.

 $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ is the praise of qualities ascribed to the pilgrimage site of Kedāra. The $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (3.28a–29a) presents it thus:

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kedārodakapānāc ca gatim pañcāṣṭamīm dhruvam | vidyayā saṃyutā ye tu pibante ca jalaṃ śubham || śivasāyojyatām yānti |
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Also, by drinking the water of Kedāra one certainly obtains the realm of rebirth of (gatim) [of attaining] the five sets of ogdoads (i.e. all forty bhuvanas) $(pa\~ncas̄tam\bar{t}m)$. As for those who possess (saṃyutāḥ) the Vidyāmantra (vidyayā) and who drink [this] pure water [of Kedāra], they will obtain $(y\bar{a}nti)$ union with Śiva.

The $t\bar{t}rtha$ Kedāra occurs twice in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$: once in the list of forty sacred places (3.21) and once at this point (3.28), where drinking the water of Kedāra is emphasised: 'those who possess $(samyut\bar{a}h)$ the Vidyāmantra $(vidyay\bar{a})$ and who drink [this] pure water [of Kedāra] will obtain $(y\bar{a}nti)$ union with Śiva.' The Vidyāmantra, in all likelihood, refers to the ten-syllable $vidy\bar{a}mantra$ (also referred to as Daśākṣaradeva) taught in chapter 16 of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. This implies that the Laukika teaching of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is partly infused with knowledge of the Mantramārgic teachings. This suspicion hardens when considering the account of Kedāra as presented in the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$:

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ṛṣaya ū<sup>178</sup> |
devadāruvane ramye<sup>179</sup> ṛṣayaḥ saṃśitavratāḥ |
nandīśam upasaṃgamya praṇipatya muhur muhuḥ || 16.1 ||
ūcus te ṛṣayaḥ sarve stutvā nandiṃ<sup>180</sup> śivātmajam |
sarvadharmātiriktas tu kedāras tu kathaṃ bhavet || 16.2 ||
utpattiñ ca vidhānañ ca pītasyaiva tu yat phalam |
kedārasya samāsena tattvato vaktum arhasi<sup>181</sup> || 16.3 ||
nandir uvāca |
himavacchikharāsīnaṃ deva[[(devaṃ jagadguruṃ)]] |
brahmādyādisurāḥ sarve saṃsārabhayapīḍitāḥ || 16.4 ||
śaraṇaṃ śaṃkaraṃ jagmuḥ<sup>182</sup> stutvā ca vividhaiḥ stavaiḥ |
padbhyāṃ nipatitāḥ sarve kṛtvā cāñjalisaṃpuṭam<sup>183</sup> || 16.5 ||
vijñāpayaṃ haraṃ caivaṃ<sup>184</sup> sarve tatra divaukasāḥ <sup>185</sup> |
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For a summary of the legend, see also TAK 3, s.v. daś\bar{a}kṣara.

rṣaya \bar{u} ] conj.; r--- NW; \sqcup K

devadāruvane ramye ] conj.; ---mmye N; \sqcup msK; r \sqcup W

nandiṃ ] K; nandi° NW

vaktum arhasi ] K; vāktum arhasi NW

saṃkaraṃ jagmuḥ ] KW; śaṃkaraṇ jagmuḥ N

cānjalisaṃpuṭam ] WK^{pc}; cānjalisaṃpuṭām N; cānjalisaṃpuṃṭam K^{ac}

vijnāpayaṃ haraṃ caivaṃ ] W; vijnāpayaṃ haran cevaṃ N; vijnāpaṃyan haraṃ tvevaṃ K

divaukasāh ] W; divaukasā N; divaukasah K
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y\bar{a} te rudra śivā mūrtih sā katham prāpyate vibho<sup>186</sup> || 16.6 ||
aśivaiś ca suraih sarvair brahmavisnupurogamaih |
tata\acute{s} ca sa haro devah^{187} ((sa)) --- [[k\bar{a}]]rakah^{188} \parallel 16.7 \parallel
vi[[dyay\bar{a}\ (sam)]]puṭam\ retam\ sur\bar{a}n\bar{a}m\ agratas\ tyaian^{189}
bho surendrā pibasvedam^{190} reta vidyāsamanvitam || 16.8 ||
mama retasya pānena śivatvam prāpyate dhruvam
etac chrutvā tu vacanam^{191}sarve tatra divaukasāh^{192} \parallel 16.9 \parallel
prādudruvan<sup>193</sup> tatah sarve apītvā tu tadāmrtam
dev\bar{\imath}m^{194} m\bar{a}m ca brav\bar{\imath}d devo p\bar{a}syat\bar{a}m jalam uttamam || 16.10 ||
na\ ca\ dev\bar{\imath}\ pibet\ tat\ tu ---<sup>195</sup>
--- ((vet))|
aham eva hi pāsyāmi devī vacanam abravīt \parallel 16.11 \parallel
nandi nandi mahāprajña<sup>196</sup> rakṣasva -m- amṛtaṃ<sup>197</sup> jalam |
na deyam devatānām tu naitat pānam kadācana^{198} \parallel 16.12 \parallel
m\bar{a}nus\bar{a}[[nugra(ham\ k\bar{a}ryam\ pa\acute{s}upaksi)]]mrq\bar{a}disu^{199}
vidy\bar{a}h\bar{i}n\bar{a} qane \hat{s}\bar{a}\hat{s}^{200} ca s\bar{a}yojyam vidyay\bar{a} yut\bar{a}h^{201} || 16.13 ||
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In the beautiful Devadāru forest, the sages [who abided] under stringent vows approached Nandīśa and prostrated [before him] again and again. All the sages, having first praised Nandi, a son of Śiva, asked: "how is it that Kedāra is excelling over all dharmas? What is the origin [of its water], what is the [proper] procedure for drinking it and what is the result of drinking it? Pray tell [us all] about Kedāra in brief." Nandi replied: "All the foremost gods, beginning with Brahmā, oppressed by fear of the world, sought refuge with Śańkara, god of gods, [and] teacher of the world, who was sitting at the top of the snow[-capped] mountain. The [gods] praised [Śańkara] with various panegyrics, [and then,] folding

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mūrtih sā katham prāpyate vibho] em.; mūrtti sā katham prāpyate vibhoh N; mūrtti sā
    katham prāpyate vibho KW
187
    devah ] K; deva NW
188
    kārakah | K; --- N; dārakah W
    °gratas tyajan | conj.; °gratas tyajat N; °gratas tyajet KW
190
    surendrā pibasvedam reta | NW; surendrāh pibasvedam retam K
    vacanam sarve | NW; sarve K
    divaukasāḥ ] NW; divaukasaḥ K
193
    prādudruvan | conj.; prādudravan NKW
194
    devīm | K; devī NW
195
    pibet tat tu ] W; pibe --- N; pibet ta \sqcup K
    mahāprajña | K; mahāprajñā NW
197
    amrtam | NW; amrtam K
198
    kadācana | KW; kadācana  N
199
    mānuşānugraham kāryam paśupakṣimṛgādiṣu ] K; mānuṣā _ ga _ m --- mṛgādiṣu N;
    mānuşānugraham kṛtvā tathā pakṣimṛgādiṣu W
    gaņeśāś ca | N; gaņegaņeśāś ca K; gaņesāś ca W
    yutāh | K<sup>pc</sup>; yatā NW; yutām K<sup>ac</sup>
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their hands, they all fell at his feet. Then, introducing [themselves] to Hara, the gods [asked]: 'how can, o Rudra, [oneness with] your peaceful form be attained by all [us] anxious gods, headed by Brahmā and Visnu?' Then the god Hara [answered] [...] discharging [his] semen, concealed by the Vidyā-[mantra], in front of the gods: 'o excellent gods! Drink this [thus] connected with the Vidyā-[mantra]. By drinking my semen, [you] certainly [will] attain Siva-hood.' As soon as they heard this instruction, all the gods flew away from there without drinking that nectar. God said to Devī and me: '†Drink [this] excellent water; Devī may not drink it [...].' †Devī said the [following] words: 'I myself drink this [semen].' [Then the god said:] 'o Nandi of great intelligence! Protect [this] water, [this] nectar. [You] should never give this water to gods. [You] should [instead] favour human beings, domesticated animals, birds, and forest animals. [All who drink this water] without possessing the Vidyāmantra $(vidyay\bar{a})$, [will become] lords of the Ganas. As for those who possess the Vidyāmantra (vidyayā), they will attain oneness [with me]."

Particularly telling of a certain degree of Laukika-Mantramārga syncretism is the following extract from $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 16.15:

vidyāyā lakṣanaṃ vakṣye yathāha parameśvaraḥ | nyāsapānavidhānañ ca vidyāmāhātmyam eva ca ||

I will relate [to you] a description of the Vidyā-[mantra] as the highest god related it [to me], the $ny\bar{a}sa$ procedure [relating to the mantra], the procedure for drinking the [Kedāra water] and also the greatness of the Vidyā-[mantra].

If we consider the above extracts in conjunction with $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ 3.28–29b, it appears possible that chapter sixteen of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ influenced the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$, specifically because of the tantric influence on a principally Laukika segment. The $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ might have borrowed from the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ the idea of achieving union with Śiva by means of the Vidyāmantra and by drinking the Kedāra water.

It is conceivable that a late author/editor was involved *both* in the redaction of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, as well as in the generation of the final chapters of the Guhyasutra, chapter sixteen in particular:²⁰³ rather than remoulding either text to fit the

There is a further instance where the text of the Niśvāsamukha appears to be influenced by the tantric teachings, viz. Niśvāsamukha 1.27c–28b: (dīkṣitā nandinā sarve nirvvāṇe yojitāḥ pare || vidyābhikānkṣiṇaś cānye vidyāyāṃ te tu yojitāḥ|). These two lines appear just after Nandin names the Five Streams (1.26a–27a) and states two types of initiation, vidyādīkṣā and nirvāṇadīkṣā, which actually fall under the fifth stream, the Mantramārga.

The *Guhyasūtra* may quite possibly contain a multiplicity of textual layers, in which case a number of authors may have been involved in the composition of a text that in its youngest version eventually came to span eighteen chapters. Consult Goodall et al. (2015: 20, 44 and 71–73) for more details.

other's idiosyncrasies, that author might have penned the sections containing the reference to the water of Kedāra, the praise of $vidy\bar{a}$, and the tantric connotations thereof in both texts—to the effect that they originally harmonized.²⁰⁴

As we have already observed, ²⁰⁵ Guhyasūtra 1.4 refers to the Niśvāsamukha in the very beginning of the work; likewise, the very end of the Guhyasūtra (18.15) displays a cross-reference of similarly doubtful authenticity. ²⁰⁶

If the above mentioned cross-references to the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (in $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ 1.4 and 18.15) are not subsequent insertions, but instead were original components of the work, then the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ must chronologically precede the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. Yet, given their positions at the very beginning and the very end of the text, the likelihood is that both of them were added subsequently during a late stage of the composition of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. We therefore hesitate to take these cross-references at face value, and choose to refrain from considering them in our calculations regarding the relative dating of these two texts. 207

The $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s Borrowings from the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$

The $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ is one of the earliest sources from which the composer(s) of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ drew—it also appears to be the work on which the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ draws most extensively. We recall that the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ is the earliest extant scripture traceable to the oldest known school of Śaivism, that of the Pā\acute{s}upatas. In the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, the Pā\acute{s}upata system is referred to as the Atimārga—'the outer path.' On the one hand, pivotal practices of the Pā\acute{s}upata school are reserved for the brahmanical elite—ascetics have to be male brahmins for example.' On the other hand, the Pā\acute{s}upata tenet system intentionally inverts traditional brahmani-

'Doubtful' in the sense that both of these verses may be retroactive insertions by a scribe attempting to reinforce the internal cohesion of the compendium by crafting a link between the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the four $s\bar{u}tras$. Consult p. 30 for the full quotation of this extract.

Sanderson (1988: 664) renders Atimārga as the "outer path" because the latter system operates outside—both in implied, and overt, contradiction to—the brahmanical establishment; in particular, the Atimārga defies the teachings concerning the four stages of life (caturāśrama) central to the brahmanical system. Etymologically, however, Atimārga could also be translated as 'transcendent path'.

One of the bases for ascertained congruence between the Pāśupata school and the brahmanical tradition is the Pāśupata observance. Sanderson mentions (1988: 664) that the latter is reserved for a brahmin who has already undergone the *upanayana* rite, in which the boy is invested with the sacred thread and hence qualified to learn the Veda.

The possibility that the *Niśvāsamukha* and the *Guhyasūtra* were both fashioned after an unknown, external source, certainly remains.

²⁰⁵ See p. 29.

Hans Bakker in a personal communication dated to 16th October 2015, attributes a greater degree of credibility to the cross-references than we are inclined to adopt: "Finally, the *Guhya-sūtra* mentions the *Mukha* twice (1.4 & 18,13, 15), the *Mukha* never the *Guhyasūtra*. ... the odds are that the *Guhyasūtra* knew the *Mukha* and not the other way [a]round."

cal observances in many instances 210 —this indicates the antinomian streak of the Pāśupatas. The fact that the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$'s author(s) adopted extensive segments of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ reveals that the Pāśupatas were still a prominent presence in contemporaneous society. It also shows, Sanderson posits, that certain aspects of Mantramārga Śaivism comprise a continuation of core components of the tenet system of the Atimārga. 211

The fourth section of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, relating the ideas and practices of the Atimārga, commences at 4.70c and extends until 4.130d. It presents two distinct types of the Pā\acute{s}upata system (4.123), namely the Atyā\acute{s}rama (4.70c–88d) and the Lokātīta (4.89–130). The first, Atyā\acute{s}rama, is offered in the guise of a fully versified paraphrase of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$. In the following section, we shall investigate the precise way in which the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ draws on the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$, for which task we will be presenting passages of correspondence between these two texts with an analytical emphasis on apparent alterations. ²¹²

Of course we cannot expect the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ to reappear verbatim in the textual fabric of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$: the fact that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is in $anu\acute{s}tubh$ verse precludes any such possibility. What is more, textual fragments had to be rearranged in accordance with the stylistic and semantic dictates of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Still, despite the agenda with which the composers of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ approach the content of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ —namely to compile a compendium which re-contextualizes earlier related systems as ancillary and subservient to tantric Śaivism—one can nevertheless speak of an affinity in perspective. Let us proceed to investigate the extant evidence.

In some cases, the fact that a fragment comprises borrowed text that has been altered and expanded upon is clear and conspicuous. For example, $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra 1.18 akaluṣamateḥ 'of one [who is] of unclouded mind' is rendered in Niśv \bar{a} samukha 4.75ab as ak \bar{a} luṣyeṇa bh \bar{a} vena jantuṃ paśyeta sarvataḥ: 'one should see all living beings with an unclouded disposition.' We suppose that this text grew not just as a corollary of the dictates of metre, but mostly out of the need to make explicit and

This becomes evident when ruminating upon the following injunctions: bhasmani śayīta 'one should sleep in ashes,' ...' unmattavad eko vicareta loke 'one should stroll around in the world alone like a mad person,' śmaśānavāsī ... 'one should live in a cremation ground' (Pāśupatasūtra 1.3, 4.4 and 5.20).

The reader is here referred to Sanderson (2006: 199 ff.).

Other than for the most significant findings, which are presented below, the reader is encouraged to consult the translation and accompanying notes of the section in question (Niśvāsamukha 4.70c–88d). We have followed the system of numbering of the Pāśupatasūtra which is based on Kauṇḍinya's commentary (i.e. in accordance with Śāśtrīs's edition); this does not accord with the sūtrapāṭha of BISSCHOP (2007).

We hold that the embedding of the content of the Niśvāsa-corpus in a stratified scheme of five streams indicates that the author was driven, at least in part, by an 'inclusivistic' approach that sought to elevate the Mantramārga above its appropriated counterparts. For a brief reaquaintance with the five streams, refer to pp. 18ff).

clarify the meaning of a source text that by dint of its genre-specific parameters—those of the $s\bar{u}tras$ —tends to be notoriously terse.

First of all, let us turn to cases where the text of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ deviates significantly from the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$, although the intended meaning remains largely identical:

Pāśupatasūtra	Niśvāsamukha
• carataḥ 1.19	evaṃ yo varttate nityaṃ 4.86a
Of somebody who wanders [thus]	[If] somebody always remains thus
• $k\bar{a}ma$ - $r\bar{u}pitvam$ 1.24	yathepsitam 4.87b
capability of shapeshifting	whatever he desires
• avamataḥ sarvabhūteṣu 3.3–4	viparītāni karmmāņi kurvaṃl lokajugupsitaḥ 4.78cd
being insulted amidst all beings	performing transgressive acts censured by people
• paribhūyamāno hi vidvān kṛtsnatapā bhavati 3.19	paribhūtaḥ kṛcchratapā sarvalokeṣu ninditaḥ mahātapāś ca bhavate 4.81c–82a
For, a wise person being humiliated becomes someone who has undergone all penances	humiliated, practising severe tapas, and blamed everywhere, he becomes great in tapas
• sarvaviśiṣṭo 'yaṃ panthāḥ satpathaḥ 4.16–17	$sanm\bar{a}rggavratac\bar{a}rine~4.84{\rm d}$
The path is distinguished above all others, [it is the] good path (HARA 1966: 367)	For the one who practises the observances of the right path

Although the intended meanings for each of the above-listed pairs of expressions are largely identical, the redactor still introduces noteworthy changes in formulation. In our view, these stylistic changes were made with the aim of streamlining the tone of the appropriated section in order to harmonize it with the wider textual body of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$.

That being said, we also encounter semantic discrepancies between Pāśupata injunctions and their reformulations in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$. In the following example we find a reference to the linga, the icon of Śiva, in the textual fabric of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ which is absent both in the $P\bar{a}śupatas\bar{u}tra$ and in Kauṇḍinya's commentary—evidently, the inclusion of the linga in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ constitutes an act of innovation. If unintentional innovation is a possibility to be considered, then it is conceivable that the paraphrased text may have appeared as the result of relatively loose paraphrasing. Perhaps, due to quasi-synonymous use of the terms $\bar{a}yatana$ ('temple' or 'abode') and $lingasy\bar{a}yatana$ ('temple [housing a] linga') in common parlance, the redactor saw no difference between $\bar{a}yatana$ and $lingasy\bar{a}yatana$ ('the abode of the linga'). In opting for the rendition of $lingasy\bar{a}yatana$ in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ the author might have sought to render explicit what he considered to be an implicit shade of meaning in the $P\bar{a}śupatas\bar{u}tra$. Therefore he may not have been aware of having introduced a potentially significant modification:

Pāśupatasūtra 1.7

Niśvāsamukha 4.72a

 $\bar{a}yatanav\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$

lingasyāyatane vāsah

resident of a temple

he [should take up his] abode in the house of a *linga* [i.e. a temple]

Another conspicuous modification concerns mantra recitation. At 1.17, the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ and Kauṇḍinya's commentary thereto, attest to two valid alternatives of performing recitation: one can opt either to recite the $raudr\bar{i}$ $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{i}$ or the $bahur\bar{u}p\bar{i}$ $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{i}$. Conversely, $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 4.74d enjoins the recitation of the $bahur\bar{u}p\bar{i}$ $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{i}$ mantra without giving any sanctioned alternative. We cannot as of yet determine whether or not the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is responsible for abolishing the option of reciting the $raudr\bar{i}$ $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{i}$, as there is a possibility that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ simply borrowed the passages from a third source.

Pāśupatasūtra 1.17

Niśvāsamukha 4.74d

 $raudr\bar{\imath}m$ $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{\imath}m$ $bahur\bar{u}p\bar{\imath}m$ $v\bar{a}$ japet

 $bahur\bar{u}pan\ tato\ japet$

he should recite the $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{\iota}$ of appeal to Rudra or the aghora

then he should recite the aghora [mantra]

[mantra]

In the following passage, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ surprisingly replaces hasita, 'laughter,' with stava, 'eulogy,'—this idea is not traceable in the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$. If the

Kauṇḍinya states, in his commentary on $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra 1.7, that since people worship at that place, it is called an \bar{a} yatana (yajan \bar{a} c $c\bar{a}$ yatanam); but he makes no mention of a linga.

modification was executed intentionally, this might suggest that by the time of composition of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, the offering $(upah\bar{a}ra)$ of laughter to Śiva was far less widespread. Instead, a new, less radical, custom of worship may have begun to emerge in its stead. Furthermore, as we shall see at present, the ordering of the individual elements in the verse of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ differs from the sequencing in the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$, and the word $upah\bar{a}ra$ is missing in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. This, however, may simply be attributable to the constraints of metre:

Pāśupatasūtra 1.8

hasitagītanṛtyahuḍḍuṅkāranamaskārajapyopahāreṇopatiṣṭhet

he should honour with laughter, songs, dance, the sounds of HUDDUN, homage by the word namas, mantra recitation, and gifts

Niśvāsamukha 4.72b–72d

huddunkārastavais tathā | gītanṛtyanamaskārair brahmabhir japasamyutah |

he [should praise] with the sound HUDDUN, sing, dance, [pay] homage with the word namas and recite the [five] brahma [mantras]

Nowhere in the $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra do we encounter any reference to the concept of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, 'worship', yet the Niśv \bar{a} samukha, for its part, mentions it in several instances. This constitutes a substantial change of perspective, since the P \bar{a} \$\text{supatas} were considered to be practising a form of religion that transcends the established traditions, especially in the domain of structured ritual. But we could assume that the author of the Ni\$v \bar{a} samukha treated the terms yajana and $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ interchangeably. Thus, we cannot exclude the possibility that this change too, was the unpremeditated result of loose paraphrasing:

Pāśupatasūtra 2.9–11

tasmād ubhayathā yaṣṭavyaḥ; devavat pitṛvac ca; ubhayaṃ tu rudre devāḥ pitaraś ca

thus, he should be venerated in both ways; like the gods and the ancestors; as both the gods and the ancestors are certainly [present] in Rudra

Niśvāsamukha 4.76ab

 $pitrp\bar{u}j\bar{a}m$ $devap\bar{u}j\bar{a}m$ $ubhe\ dev\bar{a}ya\ kalpayet$

worship as performed for ancestors and worship as performed for gods: one should perform [them] both for the great god (i.e. Rudra)

This is not, however, the only instance of the word $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ in the Pāśupata section of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$, for it occurs again in 4.71b–71d, ²¹⁵ which has no parallel in the

 $^{^{215}}$... $quhyasth\bar{a}nam\ parivrajet\ |\ darśanarthan\ tu\ \bar{\imath}\acute{s}asya\ p\bar{u}j\bar{a}n\ tatraiva\ kalpayet\ |\ .$

 $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra. Niśv \bar{a} samukha 4.81d ($p\bar{u}$ j \bar{a} l \bar{a} bhavivarjitah) once more includes $p\bar{u}$ j \bar{a} among the injunctions of the $P\bar{a}$ śupatas. The offering of withered flowers, which is described in the Niśv \bar{a} samukha (4.73cd) and also forms part of $p\bar{u}$ j \bar{a} ritual, implies a $P\bar{a}$ śupata concept even though it is not attested in the $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra itself. There is a possibility that the version of the $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra available to the author of the Niśv \bar{a} samukha was different from that which is available to us through Kauṇḍinya's commentary. Further, we find non-standard aiśa grammar strewn 217 among the verses of the Niśv \bar{a} samukha, while the corresponding passages of the $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra follow standard grammar. In the first instance, when two $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tras featuring the neuter s-stem $v\bar{a}$ sas are paraphrased in the Niśv \bar{a} samukha, the word is treated as a masculine a-stem, $v\bar{a}$ sa. In the second instance, the standard optative singular avekpet of the $P\bar{a}$ śupatas \bar{u} tra has been replaced with its common equivalent, but irregularly in the \bar{a} tmanepada, resulting in the form paśypta:

Pāśupatasūtra

• $ekav\bar{a}s\bar{a}h \mid av\bar{a}s\bar{a}\ v\bar{a}\ 1.10-11$

he [should wear] one garment or [be] without garment

• mūtrapurīṣaṃ nāvekṣet 1.12

he should not look at urine and excrement

Niśvāsamukha

ekavāso hy avāso vā 4.73a

he should wear one garment or [be] naked

mūtrāmedhyan na paśyeta 4.74a

he should not look at urine and excrement

There are some sections in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ that, as Sanderson has explained, 218 could possibly constitute innovative additions to paraphrased material borrowed from external sources. Amongst the sources that we now know of, there are four independent Pāśupata ritual texts ascribed to a certain Gārgya. These are the $Samsk\bar{a}ravidhi$, 219 Antyeṣṭividhi, 220 $P\bar{a}travidhi$, 221 and the $Pr\bar{a}ya\acute{s}cittavidhi$, all of which have come to light due to the efforts of D. ACHARYA, who has published three of the works (with the fourth announced as forthcoming in the foreseeable future). In these sources also, we did not find what appear to be addenda. Our search in the fifth principal source consulted for this task, the $Pamp\bar{a}m\bar{a}h\bar{a}tmya$, 222 a text which contains components of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tras$ in a paraphrased form, also did not yield any results.

 $^{^{216}}$ $\,$ This will be further investigated on p. 72.

On the significance of $ai\acute{s}a$ grammar, see p. 113.

²¹⁸ Cf. Sanderson (2006: 158).

²¹⁹ D. Acharya (2007).

²²⁰ D. Acharya (2010).

²²¹ D. Acharya (2011).

²²² FILLIOZAT (2001: 91–152).

Why were the paraphrased borrowings interpolated with addenda during the process of integration into the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$? First of all, we should bear in mind that we are analyzing a fully versified text. It is undoubtedly, at least partially, the case, that in the process of drafting verses, transit-words and other items of textual inflation (verse-fillers) found their way into the textual fabric of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. For example, a phrase like jitendriya, 'with the senses subjugated' appears both in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 4.70d as $(bhasma\acute{s}ay\bar{\imath}\ jitendriya\dot{n})$ and in 4.83a $(jitendriya\acute{s}\ ca\ d\bar{a}nta\acute{s}\ ca)$. While one of these mentions in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is certainly a parallel for $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra\ 5.11,^{223}$ the other is a repetition, most likely serving as mere verse-filler, reiterated so as to not distort the fundamental meaning of the passage, but certainly without adding any semantic content. 224

There are, however, some other sections in the text which might constitute unaltered, or at least minimally distorted, Pāśupata injunctions. For example, Niśvāsamukha 4.73cd suśīrnapatitaih puspair ddevadevam samarccayet 'he should worship the god of gods with withered, fallen flowers.' This passage is reminiscent of the important Pāśupata concept of ahimsā, 'non-harm.' Since the Pāśupata are conscious of the subtle implications of himsā, 'harmfulness,' they may have regarded the culling of living flowers as an act to be avoided.²²⁵ In this regard, Kaundinya's commentary on the $P\bar{a}$ supratas \bar{u} tra leads its readers to conclude that $ahims\bar{a}$ is a coreconcept of the Pāśupata tenet system, to be rigorously applied in ritual practices. Kaundinya explains that the concept of $ahims\bar{a}$ is fundamental to the practice of a Pāśupata ascetic. In order to avoid harming creatures he is enjoined to eat the food prepared by others (parakrta), live in a temple prepared by others, wear nirmālya, 'the discarded garlands of god' and bathe in bhasma, 'ashes', instead of water, so as to avoid direct harm to living creatures. 226 This effectively means that in theory he deliberately avoids, at least according to Kaundinya, every possibility of harm inflicted upon any creature. Since the $ahims\bar{a}$ concept is thus an ubiquitous and foundational principle of the Pāśupata school, we assume that suśīrnapatitaih puspair ddevadevam samarccayet is not just a verse-filler, but quite likely an authentic Pāśupata injunction, although we have not yet been able to trace it in Pāśupata sources. Moreover, it is probable that a wealth of Pāśupata materials have been lost, so our not finding it may not be conclusive evidence that it did not come from a lost Pāśupata source.

The passage of the *Niśvāsamukha* (4.83d) *naikānnādaḥ kadācana*, 'he [should] never eat food [that is obtained] from a singular [household]' might also not have a direct parallel in the limited, extant literature available to us; however, it does not

²²³ Pāśupatasūtra 5.11 includes jitendriyaḥ ('somebody who has conquered his sense-faculties') only once.

A similar example may be the phrase $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}ma$ 'breath control' that occurs in 4.85a. As this term has already been used in 4.74ab and is paralleled by $P\bar{a}$ supatas \bar{u} tra 1.16, the second occurrence in 4.85a must have served as reiterative verse-filler.

The reader is here referred to SANDERSON 2014: 10, fn. 38.

²²⁶ See Hara 2002: 71–73.

appear to be an addendum resulting from the dictates of metre—and indeed the $Pr\bar{a}ya\acute{s}cittavidhi$ (v. 81), one of the recently rediscovered Pāśupata texts, prescribes atonement for eating food collected from a single household in certain conditions.

Likewise, the following verse of $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 4.77 is without traceable textual parallel in the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$:

```
śītātapaparikleśair jalam aśrū --- sibhiḥ |
japadhyānaparo nityam sarvadvandvasahisnutā || 4.77 ||
```

Through the hardships of cold and heat; water [[...]] He should always be dedicated to mantra recitation and meditation, and should [have] the capacity for patient endurance of all kinds of pairs [of opposites].

Although we have not found any parallel for this in the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$, the elements of the verse may have been original components of the borrowed content. We know that enduring the hardships of cold and heat is a widespread practice of asceticism (cf. for example $Y\bar{a}j\~{n}avalkyasmriti$ 3.52) and therefore does not present any semantic 'criterion of incoherence', ²²⁷ for which reason the meaning conveyed, also, does not imply later redactory influence. Finally, as regards the specific mode of expression of this injunction, we find the compound 'dvandvasahiṣṇutā/dvandvasahiṣṇutva attested to in Pāśupata sources, such as the $P\bar{a}\~{n}c\bar{a}rthabh\bar{a}\~{s}ya$ (= $P\bar{a}\~{s}upatas\bar{u}trabh\bar{a}\~{s}ya$, p. 121). For these reasons, we believe that the above verse, taken from the $Ni\~{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, may reflect an authentic injunction of the original Pāśupata tradition. ²²⁸

Most striking is that the Pāśupata section of the *Niśvāsamukha* does not display the five Brahmamantras in the order we expect to encounter them in. Since these

- 4.78a japanisthaikāntaratih 'being intent upon mantra recitation and enjoying solitude.'
- 4.80a vikrośen 'he should tremble.'
- 4.80cd viruddhaceṣṭitaṃ vākyaṃ viruddhañ cāñjanaṃ sadā '[he should engage in] inappropriate behaviour, inappropriate speech, [and] always [apply] inappropriate ointments.'
- 4.81ab viruddhamandanan gātre sarvadā samupakramet | 'he should always apply inappropriate ornaments on his body.'
- 4.83ab ... dāntaś ca kṣamī kāmavivarjitaḥ | '[he should] be restrained, be forgiving, [and] free from desire.'
- 4.86b dambhalobhavivarjitaḥ 'devoid of pride and greed.'

²²⁷ 'Criteria of incoherence' is a term Oberlies (1997: 76) explained to be indicators for textual accretion: "Inkohärenzkriterien ... sind Indizien für ein Wachstum des Textes."

As regards the remaining noteworthy innovations we have detected in the Pāśupata-section of the Niśvāsamukha, they are listed below. We assume that these addenda, though likely subjected to stylistic (and possibly semantic) inflation, may reflect authentic Pāśupata injunctions, some of which could have entered the tradition after the time of composition of the Pāśupatasūtra.

mantras feature prominently in the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$, with each one inserted at the end of each of the five chapters, it is worth inspecting the cause of their absence in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Were these mantras not a part of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ which the author of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ drew upon? If this is the case, was perhaps Kauṇḍinya responsible for the division of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ into five chapters, adding one of these mantras to each chapter as a quasi-marker? Finally, were these mantras an original element of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$ and the person who paraphrased it deliberately left them out? At this point, we are only able to raise these issues and guess at explanations.

Not only are the Brahmamantras not included in the account of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, but the salvific rewards of following the injunctions are also not contained in the rendition of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, although they directly precede the presentation of Brahmamantras in the account of the $P\bar{a}\acute{s}upatas\bar{u}tra$.

The Niśvāsamukha's Borrowings from the Manusmrti

As we have mentioned in passing, another work upon which the author of the Niśvāsamukha evidently drew was the Manusmrti—one of the most influential works of the brahmanical tradition.²²⁹ This work has substantially influenced the profile of the Niśvāsamukha—in particular the injunctions regarding donative practices (2.37 ff.), practising observances (3.37 ff.), worshipping ancestors (2.39–41), using the five products of the cow, the ritual handling of $ku\acute{s}a$ -grass²³⁰ and the like. The majority of these individual instances of borrowing occur in the Laukika section of the Niśvāsamukha, which are hence strongly influenced by the brahmanical tradition. Let us consider the possibility that the Niśvāsamukha borrowed directly from the Manusmrti rather than via a third source that was itself influenced by the latter. This remains rather difficult to assess. On the one hand, the Niśvāsamukha being a comparatively early work, it would not have been able to draw on a great number of $Pur\bar{a}nas$, simply because these had not yet been composed in great number. On the other hand, any assimilated text would be expected to lose its original texture upon being transplanted into a novel linguistic or structural environment. Since the Niśvāsamukha has generally made modifications to any textual borrowings that were originally in standard Pāṇinian grammar, it becomes even more difficult to assess whether the source of borrowing had been the Manusmrti itself or a later related source. In the Niśvāsamukha's section listing Laukika religious observances, we encounter the following verse concerning the atikrcchra (3.40) observance:

ekaikaṃ bhakṣayed grāsaṃ trīṇy ahāni jitendriyaḥ \mid trirātropavasec caiva atikṛcchraṃ viśodhane $\mid\mid$

For the *Manusmṛti* and its place in the brahmanical tradition, see OLIVELLE's introduction to the *Manusmṛti* (2005).

See, for example, 3.37 in the Niśvāsamukha.

Having subdued one's sense faculties, one should, for three days, eat [only] a mouthful and one should fast for three nights. [This kind of religious observance is called] *atikrcchra*, o pure lady!

If we compare this to the definition in the Manusmrti (11.214) we find changes of content and style:

ekaikam grāsam aśnīyāt tryahāṇi trīṇi pūrvavat | tryaham copavased antyam atikrechram caran dvijah ||

A twice-born, observing the *atikṛcchra*, should, eat [only] a mouthful at each of the three times for three days, as before for three-days and during the last three days.

Apart from minimal changes of vocabulary, such as replacing $a \pm s n \bar{t} y \bar{a} t$ with $bhak \pm s a y e d$, and alterations in word-order, the $Ni \pm v \bar{t} s a m u k h a$ replaces $p \bar{u} r v a v a t$ with jitendriyah and $caran\ dvijah$ with $vi \pm s o d h a n e$. In the Manusmrti these two words— $p \bar{u} r v a v a t$ and $caran\ dvijah$ —fit the particular context. The word $p \bar{u} r v a v a t$ refers to nine-day periods, as taught in verse 11.212 of the Manusmrti, where a twice-born man, practising the $p r \bar{a} j \bar{a} p a t y a$ -penance, is supposed to eat in the morning for three days; in the evening for three days; the following three days he should eat unsolicited food. As the preceding section of the $Ni \pm v \bar{a} s a m u k h a$ concerns the $s \bar{a} n t a - p a n a$ -penance, the procedure of practising this observance is different to that of the $p r \bar{a} j \bar{a} p a t y a$. The text hence replaces this word, according to the demands of the context, by j t t e n t v a t v a are which appears to perform the function of a verse-filler. Similarly $caran\ dv t v a t v a$ makes perfect sense in the context of the Manusmrti, as this type of penance is listed among others which are meant to be practised by twice-born people. Such a restriction is not fitting to the context of the $Ni \pm v a v a$ then $Ni \pm v a v a$ the $Ni \pm v a v a$ the $Ni \pm v a v a$ then $Ni \pm v a v a$ then $Ni \pm v a v a$ then $Ni \pm v a v a$ to $Ni \pm v a v a$ then $Ni \pm v a v a$

Moreover, the Niśvāsamukha's grammar is less standard and as such accords with the style of the language of the Niśvāsa. As will be shown in a separate section, ²³¹ the overall language of the Niśvāsamukha is a mixture of Pāṇinian and non-Pāṇinian aiśa forms. The Niśvāsamukha replaces tryahaṃ copavased with a less standard compound trirātropavaset, where the ending of the expected accusative trirātram has been irregularly elided with the following word.

In the same section of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$, we find a verse which relates the $s\bar{a}ntapana$ -observance. If we compare the version of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ with that of the Manusmrti, apart from negligible other changes, the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ also introduces a half a line to herald the result of carrying out the $s\bar{a}ntapana$ observance. Since the Manusmrti-segment is transplanted into a textual environment that is embedded in a schematic structure whereby rewards for the various observances are systematically, the compiler must have felt inclined to supply such information, despite the fact the original segment of the Manusmrti does not specify any rewards. The version of the Manusmrti (11.213) reads as follows:

²³¹ See p. 113 ff.

gomūtraṃ gomayaṃ kṣīraṃ dadhi sarpiḥ kuśodakam | ekarātropavāsaś ca krcchram sāntapanam smrtam ||

Subsisting on cow's urine, cow dung, milk, curd, ghee, and water boiled with Kuśa grass, and fasting during one day—tradition calls this $S\bar{a}nta-pana$ penance. ²³²

The Niśvāsamukha's text (3.37a–38b), however, appears as follows:

```
māse māse tu yaḥ kuryād ekarātram upoṣitaḥ |
pañcagavyaṃ śucir bhūtvā pītvā sāntapanaṃ bhavet ||
samvatsareṇa śuddhātmā brahmaloke mahīyate |
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If someone observes $(kury\bar{a}t)$ fasting for one night every month $(m\bar{a}se\ m\bar{a}se)$ after consuming [only] the five products of the cow having first purified himself—[this] would be $S\bar{a}ntapana$. [By observing this vow of $S\bar{a}ntapana$] for a year, one [becomes] pure and will be honoured in the world of Brahmā.

Similarly, the Manusmrti (11.217), defining the cāndrāyana observance, says:

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ekaikam hrāsayet piṇḍam kṛṣṇe śukle ca vardhayet | upasprśams trisavanam etat cāndrāyanam smrtam ||
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He should decrease his food by one rice-ball a day during the dark fortnight and increase it likewise during the bright fortnight, bathing three times a day—tradition calls this $c\bar{a}ndr\bar{a}yana$ (the lunar penance).²³³

This appears in Niśvāsamukha 3.43–44 thus:

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ekaikaṃ varddhayed grāsaṃ śukle kṛṣṇe ca hrāsayet | triṣkālasnāyī māsan tu candravṛddhyā vratañ caret || cāndrāyaṇam idaṃ śreṣṭhaṃ sarvapāpāpanodanam | pāpī mucyeta pāpena apāpaḥ svarggago bhavet ||
```

One should increase [one's food] by a mouthful [a day in the days of] the bright fortnight and should decrease it [during the days] of the dark fortnight [by a mouthful a day] and should bathe three times a day; [one should] observe this observance for a month in accordance with the changing of the moon $(candravrddhy\bar{a})$. This is the excellent lunar observance $(c\bar{a}ndr\bar{a}yana)$, which removes all sins. A sinner will be freed from sin [by performing it], and one who has not committed sin will go to heaven.

²³² Olivelle 2005: 226.

²³³ OLIVELLE 2005: 226–227.

The $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ here refers to two types of people practicing this observance: on the one hand, there is the $p\bar{a}p\bar{\imath}$, 'sinful one', on the other, it mentions the $ap\bar{a}-pah$, 'one without sin'. The text emphasizes this distinction throughout the section on $upav\bar{a}sa$, 'fasting.' Accordingly, it describes two types of rewards, one for the sinful person and the other for the practitioner 'without sin'. Such a distinction of agent and reward is absent in the Manusmrti, for which reason one could argue for the account in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ being conceptually somewhat more sophisticated in this regard. The two adjectives, $\acute{s}restham$ and $sarvap\bar{a}p\bar{a}panodanam$, are

not present in the original text of the Manusmrti. Once again, the fruit of observing this $c\bar{a}ndr\bar{a}yana$ is an additional element, only mentioned in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. ²³⁴

Manusmrti

caturah prātar aśnīyāt piṇḍān viprah samāhitaḥ | caturo 'stamite sūrye śiśucāndrāyaṇaṃ smṛtam || 11.220

A Brāhmin should eat four rice-balls in the morning with a collected mind and four after sunset—tradition calls this the lunar penance of children. (OLIVELLE 2005: 227)

aṣṭāv aṣṭau samaśnīyāt piṇḍān madhyaṃdine sthite | niyatātmā haviṣyasya yaticāndrāyanam caran || 11.219

A man practicing the lunar penance of ascetics should eat each day at noon eight rice-balls from the sacrificial oblation, controlling his self. (OLIVELLE 2005: 227)

Niśvāsamukha

caturo bhakṣayet piṇḍān
pūrvāhne tu vicakṣaṇaḥ ||
sūryasyāstamane vāpi
caturo bhakṣayet punaḥ |
śiśucāndrāyaṇaṃ hy etad
upapātakanāśanam ||
māsenaikena śuddhātmā
apāpī svargatiṃ vrajet | 3.46c-3.48b

A wise man should eat four lumps of rice in the forenoon, and again he should [eat] four lumps of rice after the setting of the sun; this observance which [is called] śiśucāndrāyaṇa destroys [the demerit accrued from] minor transgressions. By observing it for a month (māsenaikena) one becomes pure-souled; if someone who is [already] free of sin performs it for three nights, he will go to heaven.

aṣṭāv aṣṭau samaśnīyāt piṇḍān madhyandine sthite | haviṣyeṇa samāyuktān mucyate sarvapātakaiḥ || apāpī svarggam āyāti yaticāndrāyanena tu | 3.45a-46b

One should eat eight rice-lumps each noon from the sacrificial oblation ($havisyena\ sam\bar{a}yukt\bar{a}n$). By [this religious observance which is called] $yatic\bar{a}ndr\bar{a}yana$ one will be freed from all crimes ($sarvap\bar{a}takaih$); [but] if he is sinless, he will go to heaven.

In the first example, the Niśvāsamukha states that the Śiśucāndrāyaṇa observance ('lunar observance of children') removes secondary sins, allowing people to purify themselves within a month. Having attained a state of purity, they will go to heaven. This has no equivalent in the Manusmṛti. In the second example, too, the Niśvāsamukha asserts that by practising the Yaticāndrāyaṇa observance, one becomes free from all sins and, being sinless, goes to heaven. This again stands in contrast with the Manusmṛti.

There are comparable, relevant examples that are here reproduced for illustrative purposes:

Let us next examine a parallel concerning the rules for householders in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$'s Vaidika section, where a change of choice of vocabulary may have entailed a total rearrangement of word-order. The original reading $upaskara\hbar$ of the Manusmri is replaced by the synonymous term $pram\bar{a}rjan\bar{\imath}$ in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Moreover, $badhyate\ y\bar{a}s\ tu\ v\bar{a}hayan$ is replaced by $kathit\bar{a}s\ tava\ \acute{s}obhane$ to fit the context of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. The result is, at least superficially, an entirely new verse in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$:

Manusmrti

pañca sūnā gṛhasthasya cullī peṣaṇy upaskaraḥ | kaṇḍanī codakumbhaś ca badhyate yās tu vāhayan || 3.68

A householder has five slaughterhouses: fireplace, grindstone, broom, mortar and pestle, and water pot. By his use of them, he is fettered. (OLIVELLE 2005: 112)

Niśvāsamukha

peṣaṇī kaṇḍanī cullī udakumbhaḥ pramārjanī | pañca sūnā bhavanty ete kathitās tava śobhane || 4.19

Mortar and pestle, fireplace, water-pot and broom are the five slaughter-houses of [a house-holder]; these have been taught to you, o beautiful one!

There are some instances of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ employing $ai\acute{s}a$ language²³⁵ while lightly modifying the original formulation of the Manusmrti—be it intentionally or inadvertently.²³⁶ The $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ recurrently uses grammatical forms that from the standpoint of standard Pāṇinian grammar are incorrect. Consider, for instance, how the Manusmrti (3.197) presents the list of the ancestors of the four varnas in standard Pāṇinian grammar:

somapā nāma viprāṇām kṣatriyāṇām havirbhujaḥ | vaiśyānām ājyapā nāma śūdrāṇām tu sukālinaḥ ||

The ancestors of Brāhmins are called Somapas; of Kṣatriyas, Havirbhujs; of Vaiśyas, Ājyapas; and of Śūdras, Sukālins. (OLIVELLE 2005: 118)

This is how the same verse appears in the version of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ (3.155):

For a more detailed account on $ai\acute{s}a$ use, refer to p. 113 ff.

Tim Lubin, in a personal communication, dated 31st of March, 2018, reminded us that although "it is possible that the author of the Niśvāsamukha deliberately changed the Manusmṛti to conform to aiśa 'norms', it is not the only way to explain textual discrepancies." As a matter of fact, he argues that "the very fact that past scholars take note of this irregularity would be due to their own familiarity with Pāṇinian rules. In all likelihood, it is thus a form of apologetics." Note that a further possible alternative Tim Lubin presents as explanation for this irregularity is "that the author of the Niśvāsamukha was citing stanzas from memory—stanzas that may have been circulating under Manu's name, but not necessarily in the form of the text handed out to us in printed editions."

pitaras somapā **vipre kṣatriye** tu havirbhujāḥ | ājyapā **vaiśyayonau** tu **śūdrānān** tu sukālinah ||

In the case of a Brāhmin, the ancestors will be [called] Somapās; in the case of a Kṣatriya, Havirbhujas; in the case of a Vaiśya, Ājyapas; and for Śūdras, [they are called] Sukālins.

The author of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ does not make changes of vocabulary here, but the genitives, namely, $vipr\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, $kṣatriy\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ and $vai\acute{s}y\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ of the Manusmrti have been replaced by locatives vipre, kṣatriye and $vai\acute{s}yayonau$ in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. At the end of the verse, however, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ retains the original genitive form $(\~s\bar{u}dr\bar{a}n\bar{a}n)$, rendering the construction unbalanced and surprising. This usage could be considered to be one of the features of $ai\acute{s}a$ language—although syntactically either genitive or locative is permissible, the combination in what are otherwise parallel phrases is disturbing. Other $ai\acute{s}a$ transformations include the following:

Manusmrti

saṭtriṃśadābdikaṃ caryaṃ gurau traivedikaṃ vratam | tadardhikaṃ pādikaṃ vā grahanāntikam eva vā || 3.1

He should carry out the observance relating to the three Vedas at his teacher's house, an observance lasting thirty-six years, or one-half or one-quarter of that time, or else until he has learnt them. (OLI-VELLE 2005: 108)

adhyāpanaṃ brahma**yajñaḥ**pitṛ**yajñas** tu tarpaṇam |
homo daivo balir bhauto
nṛyajño 'tithipūjanam ||
pañcaitān yo mahā**yajñān**na hāpayati śaktitaḥ |
sa gṛhe 'pi vasan nityaṃ
sūnādosair na lipyate || 3.70-71

Niśvāsamukha

sattrimśadabdikā caryā guros traivedikam vratam | tadardhikam pādikam vā grahanāntikam eva vā || 4.5c-6b

The [aforementioned] observance [should last] thirty-six years, and [this] commitment, based on the tripartite Veda, [should be carried out] at his teacher's [house]. Alternatively, [it may last] half of that [time] (i.e. eighteen years), or a quarter (i.e. nine years), or until he has learnt them [i.e. the Vedas]

adhyāpanaṃ brahma**yajñaṃ**pitṛ**yajñan** tu tarppaṇam |
homo daivo balir bhauto
nṛyajño 'tithipūjanam ||
pañcaitāṃs tu mahā**yajñāṃ**na hāpayati śaktitaḥ |
svagṛhe 'pi vasan nityaṃ
sūnādoṣair na lipyate || 4.17–18

The sacrifice to the Veda is teaching; the sacrifice to ancestors is the quenching libation; the sacrifice to gods is the burnt offering; the sacrifice to beings is the Bali offering; and the sacrifice to humans is the honoring of guests. If a man never fails to offer these five great sacrifices to the best of his ability, he remains unsullied by the taints of his slaughter-houses in spite of living permanently at home.

(Olivelle 2005: 108)

The sacrifice to the Veda is teaching; the sacrifice to the ancestors is the quenching libation; the sacrifice to gods is the burnt offering; the sacrifice to beings is the Bali offering; and the sacrifice to humans is the honouring of guests. If a man never fails to offer these five great sacrifices to the best of his ability, he remains unsullied by the taints of his slaughter-houses in spite of living permanently at home.

In the first example, we observe that the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ renders an irregular grammatical construction, an $ai\acute{s}a$ form, by employing the feminine $sattrim\acute{s}adabdik\bar{a}$ $cary\bar{a}$ in qualification of the neuter traivedikam vratam. The Manusmrti, in turn, displays the segment in accordance with the expected neuter case: $sattrim\acute{s}ad\bar{a}bdikam$ to qualify caryam. In the second example, the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ furnishes an irregular neuter noun $vaj\~nam$, whereas the Manusmrti records the regular masculine form, $vaj\~nah$.

In sum, the *Niśvāsamukha*'s borrowing from the *Manusmṛti* is significant for the history of early Śaivism, as it demonstrates that some features of orthodox brahmanical teaching were adopted by the Śaivas in the creation of their own corpus of teachings. This fact, yet again, buttresses Sanderson's theory (2009) that, in essence, the religion of the Śaivas consists of a hybrid of Śaivism and Brahmanism.

The Niśvāsamukha and the Śivadharmaśāstra

The $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ is the first in a group of non-tantric Śaiva works that is commonly called the $\acute{S}ivadharma$ -corpus. A number of Nepalese palm-leaf manuscripts transmit eight works of this corpus together. As regards the ordering principle, the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ —being the oldest work of the group—generally features as the first text text in these manuscripts:

1. the Śivadharmaśāstra

For a summary of its chapters, see HAZRA 1952–53, and A. K. ACHARYA 2009: 28 ff.

Note that DE SIMINI (2016b) has recorded individual instances of structural disparity between the individual multi-text manuscripts.

The following listing reflects the most common order of presentation of the texts of the corpus. For an overview of the manuscript transmission of the *Śivadharma*-corpus, see DE SIMINI 2016a.

According to Goodall (1998: 375), the first two texts have, in the course of time, been transmitted from North to South India.

- 2. the Śivadharmottara
- 3. the Ṣaḍdarśanasaṅgraha
- 4. the Śivopanisad
- 5. the *Umāmaheśvarasamvāda*
- 6. the *Uttarottaramahāsaṃvāda*, also known as the *Umottara*
- 7. the Vrsasārasangraha
- 8. the $Dharmaputrik\bar{a}^{241}$

Until recently, the Sivopanisad was the only work published from amongst this corpus, but there is now a printed version (albeit based on a single manuscript and full of errors) published by Yogi Narahari NĀTHA: all the previously listed texts are printed therein (omitted is the Lalitavistara, which is not transmitted in most manuscripts). 242 Recently, Florinda DE SIMINI has published a monograph that includes an edition and translation of the second chapter of the Śivadharmottara (2016a). More recently still, Peter Bisschop (2018) has published a monograph on the sixth chapter of the Śivadharmaśāstra, the 'Chapter on Appeasement' $(\hat{Santyadhyaya})$, a work comprising a critical-edition-cum-translation with an annotated commentary of that section. There is now also an edition of the complete text of the Śivadharmaśāstra, that of Jugnu & Sharma (2014), which shows a general predilection towards the readings found in what BISSCHOP refers to as the 'Pondicherry-Transcript'. 243 "The preface of the edition mentions, however, that it was based on a manuscript from Adyar" (Library), 244 while the 'Pondicherry-Transcript' was copied from a manuscript in Kilvelur. Finally, as we shall have occasion to mention below, there is A. K. Acharya's 2009 edition of the first three chapters of the Śivadharmasangraha.

DE SIMINI & MIRNIG (2017) investigated an 11th-century Nepalese palmleaf manuscript in the Asiatic Society of Calcutta (G4077) which contains a longer text by the name of *Lalitavistara*. In the MS investigated by de DE SIMINI & MIRNIG (2017), this latter text—not to be confused with the Buddhist work by the same name—features in place of the *Dharmaputrikā* of our present listing. Note that there is a possibility that the *Lalitavistara* may also have been incorporated during the later stages of the textual history of the *Śivadharma*-corpus.

See GOODALL 1998: 375-376, for a brief outline of this corpus; for a summary of each chapter of the texts of the Śivadharma-corpus including the Lalitavistara, see A. K. Acharya 2009: 22–82

BISSCHOP (2018) mentions the 'Pondicherry-Transcript' on p. 57 fn. 107, being housed at the Institut Français de Pondichéry (IFP), T 32, 156 folios, being a Devanāgarī paper transcript of a manuscript belonging to Kilvelur and bearing the title of Śivadharmaśāstra. http://muktalib7.org/IFP_ROOT/IFP/transcripts_data/T0032/PDF/T0032.pdf.

²⁴⁴ Jugnu & Sharma 2014: ix.

R.C. HAZRA, in two articles²⁴⁵ published in the 1940s and 1950s in the journal Puraṇa, proposed approximate dates for the first two works of the corpus—the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ and the $\acute{S}ivadharmottara$. He suggests that the former was composed between 200 and 500 CE, while the latter must have been composed much later, between 700 and 800 CE, on the grounds that it makes use of expressions such as $\bar{a}gama$ and $\acute{s}ivatantra$, which HAZRA assumes to refer to tantric $\acute{S}aiva$ scriptures.

This assumption, however, is far from certain. It is perhaps worth mentioning that the $\acute{S}ivadharmottara$ prescribes the installation of an image of Lakulīśa, a deity of no importance in the Mantramārga, yet indicative of a Pāśupata background. BISSCHOP (2014) has presented the view that some of the information in chapter six of the $\acute{S}ivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ cannot predate the $6^{\rm th}$ century. More recently, upon examination of the sixth chapter of the $\acute{S}ivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$, BISSCHOP (2018: 21) concludes that evidence²⁴⁶

suggest[s] that the text may have been composed towards the end of the $6^{\rm th}$ century at the earliest. In the light of Goodalls's dating of the $\dot{S}ivadharmottara$ to the $7^{\rm th}$ century, the Atimārga milieu of the text, ... and the quotation in the $K\bar{a}ran\dot{q}avy\bar{u}has\bar{u}tra$, it will not have been much later than this. The terminus ante quem is the date of the incomplete $\dot{S}ivadharmottara$ manuscript, which was most probably written in the early $9^{\rm th}$ century. 247

The Niśvāsamukha has sizeable parallels with the Śivadharmaśāstra. The presence of parallels was to be expected, as we have seen above that the Niśvāsamukha is teaching lay Śaiva religious duties to common householders in its Laukika section—yet, one may ask, can we ascertain the direction of borrowing and situate these texts chronologically?

Let us first consider a telling example of a shared verse teaching the reward of recalling Śiva $(vir\bar{u}p\bar{a}ksa)$ which occurs verbatim as $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 1.167c–168b and as $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ 1.14c–15b:

ekakālam dvikālam vā triskālam vāpi nityaśaḥ || ye smaranti virūpākṣam vijñeyās te gaņeśvarāḥ |

HAZRA (1940; 1952–3).

For a more detailed discussion of the evidence consulted by Peter BISSCHOP which is indicative of the dating of the Śivadharmaśāstra, refer to BISSCHOP 2018: 20–21. There BISSCHOP discusses the developmental stage of the concept of the Dikpālas as presented in the sixth chapter of the work, the four-faced form of Śiva (as contrasted with the later five-faced depiction of the deity), the inclusion of Ketu amongst the nine planets (Navagrahas), which "has only been attested to from 600 CE onwards", etc.

Note that Florinda DE SIMINI (2016a, ch. 2) presents a detailed treatment of the Śivadharmacorpus and offers her analysis regarding the date of the first two works. In further pursuit of this question, the reader is hence referred to her more detailed discussion on the date of these texts, in particular pp. 28–66 (or more briefly, pp. 63–63).

Those who always remember the oddly-eyed $(vir\bar{u}p\bar{a}k\bar{s}am)$ once, twice or three times [a day], they are to be known as lords of Gaṇas.

Since both textual units are identical, it is likely that the borrowing between the two works occurred directly, rather than via a third source. Furthermore, there is no such Śaiva source known to us that predates the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ and teaches lay Śaivism other than the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$. BISSCHOP has proposed a tentative dating for the sixth chapter of the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$, which, he believes, belongs to the late 6^{th} century CE at the earliest. If this credible hypothesis holds true, then the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ probably predates the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$, which appears to originate from the end of the 7^{th} century. For this reason, we may posit that the latter borrowed from the former.

We may further note that both the Niśvāsamukha and the Śivadharmaśāstra share recommendations for constructing temporary lingas out of diverse substances. One notable example is that of the making of a dust linga in Śivadharmaśāstra 3.77c–78b, which is echoed in Niśvāsamukha 2.2. Although this example does not present an instance of verbatim repetition, the concept is presented in a comparable manner:

Niśvāsamukha

krīḍamānās tu ye bālā lingan kurvanti pāṃśunā | labhanty ekāntato rājyaṃ nissapatnam akaṃṭakam ||

Those children who make a *linga* at play will definitely obtain an unrivalled kingdom without enemies.

ŚIVADHARMAŚĀSTRA

pāṃśunā krīḍamāno 'pi liṅgaṃ kuryāt tu yo naraḥ || pratyante labhate rājyam asapatnam akantakam |

Any man at play, who erects a *linga* out of dust will obtain a universal kingdom without contest, without enemies.

Another distinctive recommendation is found in *Niśvāsamukha* 2.91cd: anyone who offers tooth-cleaning sticks, will receive a beautiful wife as reward. The causal connection between offering tooth-cleaning sticks and obtaining a beautiful wife in return features also in *Śivadharmaśāstra* 12.72:

Niśvāsamukha

dantadhāvanadātā ca bhāryām labhati śobhanām

ŚIVADHARMAŚĀSTRA

dantadhāvanam uddiṣṭaṃ nivedya śivayogine | divyastrībhogasaṃyuktaṃ divi ramyaṃ puraṃ labhet ||

²⁴⁸ See fn. 246.

²⁴⁹ The reader is referred here to *Niśvāsamukha* 2.2 ff. and *Śivadharmaśāstra* 3.63 ff.

And one who offers teeth-cleaning sticks $(dantadh\bar{a}vanad\bar{a}t\bar{a})$ will obtain a beautiful wife.

By offering promised teethcleaning sticks to a Śivayogin, one will obtain a beautiful city in heaven conjoined by the enjoyments of celestial ladies.

A further example illustrative of the close textual ties between the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ and the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ is the following account regarding a gradation of recipients ($p\bar{a}tra$) in accordance with their perceived merit. Note how $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ 2.117–119 is closely paralleled by $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ 7.69–71:

Niśvāsamukha

mūrkhaviprasahasrebhyo vedādhyāyī paraḥ smṛtaḥ | vedādhyāyisahasrebhyo hy āhitāgnis tato 'dhikaḥ || āhitāgnisahasreṣu agnihotrī varaḥ smṛtaḥ | agnihotrīsahasreṣu brahmavettā tato 'dhikaḥ ||

One learned in the Vedas is considered to outweigh thousands of foolish Brāhmins, one who has installed the Vedic fires is considered to be superior to thousands of men learned in the Vedas. Among the thousands of those who have installed the Vedic fires $(\bar{a}hit\bar{a}gni)$ an $agnihotr\bar{\iota}$ (one who maintains the sacrificial fire) is considered to excel. Among the thousands of $agnihotr\bar{\iota}s$, he who knows brahman $(brahmavett\bar{a})$ is considered to be superior.

ŚIVADHARMAŚĀSTRA

brahmacārisahasrebhyo vedādhyāyī viśiṣyate | vedādhyāyīsahasrebhyo hy agnihotrī viśiṣyate || agnihotrisahasrebhyo yajñayājī viśiṣyate || yajñayājīsahasrebhyaḥ satrayājī viśiṣyate || satrayājīsahasrebhyaḥ sarvavidyāntapāragaḥ || sarvavidyāvidkoṭibhyaḥ śivabhakto viśiṣyate ||

One learned in the Vedas excels Brahmacarins: thousands of $agnihotrar{\imath}$ Certainly an who maintains the sacrificial surpasses thousands men learned in the Vedas; he who has performed sacrifices $(yaj\tilde{n}ay\bar{a}jin)$ surpasses sands of agnihotrins; he who has performed the *soma* sacrifice $(satray\bar{a}jin)$ surpasses thousands of $(yaj\tilde{n}ay\bar{a}jin)s$; he who has reached the end of the other shore of knowledge surpasses thousands of soma-sacrificers (satrayājins); a devotee of Śiva surpasses ten[s of] millions of the knowers of all [ancillary objects of knowledge.

Further illustrations could be multiplied: compare for example Śivadharmaśāstra 11.71cd and Niśvāsamukha 2.122cd:

Niśvāsamukha

akşayan tad bhaved dānam $yad\ dattam\ svalpam\ alpapi$

That [effect of] offering will be indestructible, even if (api) what is offered is very little (svalpam alpapi).

ŚIVADHARMAŚĀSTRA

atyalpam api kārunyād $dattam\ bhavati\ c\bar{a}ksayam \parallel$

If someone, out of compassion, were to make even a trifle offering, [its effect] becomes indestructible.

Note also that the version of the *Lingodbhava* myth of *Niśvāsamukha* 1.72 ff. is close to that of Śivadharmaśāstra 3.2 ff.;²⁵⁰ the list of rivers (3.2 ff.) in the Niśvāsamukha is also close to Śivadharmaśāstra 6.201 ff. and 12.108 ff.

One topic in which close correspondence between these texts might have been expected has been alluded to earlier in our introduction, namely the section listing the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$. For this list of the $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}staka$ recorded in $Sivadharmas\bar{a}stra$, we have collated two old Nepalese sources:²⁵¹

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bhastr\bar{a}padam^{252} \ rudrakotir \ avimuktam^{253} \ mah\bar{a}layam
qokarnam\ bhadrakarnam\ ca\ suvarnar{a}kso\ 'tha\ dar{v}ptimar{a}n \parallel
sthāneśvaraś<sup>254</sup> ca vikhyātas triṣu lokeṣu viśrutaḥ |
sth\bar{a}n\bar{a}stakam idam j\tilde{n}eyam rudrak\tilde{s}etram mahodayam \parallel
bhastr\bar{a}pad\bar{a}disth\bar{a}nvantam^{255} rudras\bar{a}yojyak\bar{a}ranam
chaqarandam^{256}dvirandam\ ca^{257}\ m\bar{a}kotam\ mandale\'svarah \parallel
k\bar{a}la\tilde{n}jaram^{258} \acute{s}aikukarnam sthale\acute{s}varah^{259} sth\bar{u}le\acute{s}varah^{260}
pavitratakam ity etat mahapunyavivardhanah^{261} \parallel
mṛtāḥ prayānti tatriva<sup>262</sup> śivasya paramam padam<sup>263</sup>
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See Kafle (2013) for more details.
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These are MS $1028/4 (=N_{28}^K)$, 46v6-47r3 and MS $1082/3 (=N_{82}^K)$ 40v6-41r1. One may compare the text with Niśvāsamukha 3.19 ff. See also p. 58 ff. of this study.

²⁵² bhastrāpadam N_{82}^K ; vastrāpadam N_{28}^K

²⁵³ °koțir N_{82}^K ; °koțim N_{28}^K

sthāneśvaraś N_{28}^K ; sthālīśvaraś N_{82}^K

[°]vantaṃ $\mathcal{N}_{82}^K;$ °vanta
° \mathcal{N}_{28}^K

²⁵⁶ chagaraṇḍaṃ N_{82}^K ; chatalaṇḍaṃ N_{28}^K

²⁵⁷ conj.; vilaņdam ca N_{28}^K ; duraņdaś ca N_{82}^K

²⁵⁸ kāla
ñjaram em.; kāliñjaram \mathbf{N}_{28}^{K} ; kālajjaram \mathbf{N}_{82}^{K}

 $^{^{259}}$

sthaleśvara
h $\mathbf{N}_{82}^K;$ sthāleśvaram \mathbf{N}_{28}^K sthūleśvara
h $\mathbf{N}_{82}^K;$ sthūleśvaram \mathbf{N}_{28}^K

[°]vivardhana
ḥ $\mathbf{N}_{82}^K;$ --- \mathbf{N}_{28}^K

mṛtāḥ prayānti tatriva N_{82}^K ; lac N_{28}^K

śivasya paramam padam N_{82}^K ; śivasya parama pa $= N_{28}^K$

gayā caiva kurukṣetraṃ nakhalaṃ kanakhalaṃ tathā ||
vimalaṃ cāṭṭahāsaṃ ca māhendraṃ bhīmam aṣṭakam²64 |
etad guhyāṣṭakaṃ nāma sarvapāpavimocanam ||
gatvā tu puruṣaḥ strīmān prāpnoti śivamandiram |
śrīparvataṃ hariścandraṃ jalpam amrātikeśvaram²65 ||
madhyamaṃ ca mahākālaṃ kedāraṃ bhairavaṃ tathā²66 |
etad guhyātiguhyaṃ ca²67 aṣṭakaṃ parikīrttitam²68 ||
santārya ca²69 pitṛn sarvān śivaṃ yānti param padam²70 |
amareśvaraṃ²71 prabhāsaṃ ca naimiśaṃ²72 puskaraṃ tathā ||
aṣāḍhaṃ²73 diṇḍimuṇḍiś ca bhārabhūtiṃ bhavāntakam |
lakulīśvarañ ca²74 vikhyātas tathā pratyātmiko mahān ||
pratyāmikāṣṭakam idaṃ kṣatraṃ rudrasya kāmikam²75 |
tara yānti mṛtāḥ sarve rudrasya paramaṃ padam²76 ||
dānāny āvasathaṃ kūpam udyānaṃ devatākulam |
tīrtheṣu yāni yaḥ kuryāt so 'kṣayaṃ phalam āpnuyāt ||

It immediately becomes apparent that the order here differs from that of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Instead, it reveals close links to the list of the $M\bar{a}lin\bar{i}vijayottaratantra$ and the $Sv\bar{a}yambhuvas\bar{u}trasaigraha$ (see Goodall 2004: 315). It seems that the list in the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ has not served the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ as source for adaptation. An important feature of this list of ogdoads in the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$ is that it attributes a different name to each set of eight pilgrimage sites, which are inserted by way of an additional line after each set of eight. As we have seen earlier, the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$ proceeds in a similar, though not entirely identical, manner. Although stratification of the cosmological system is current in the tantric milieu, subdivision into 'levels' is traceable to both tantric and non-tantric Śaiva sources. Hence we cannot attribute such lists to one or other genre simply on the basis of a stratified cosmology.

While the list of the $pa\tilde{n}castaka$ does not constitute a close point of connectivity between the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the $\acute{S}ivadharma\acute{s}\bar{a}stra$, the other cases listed above

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\mathbf{m}\bar{\mathbf{a}} - - \mathbf{N}_{28}^K;mahendra<br/>m\mathbf{N}_{82}^K
265
       jalpama° N_{82}^K; jalpa = N_{28}^K
266
        madhya° N_{82}^K; ma --- ya° N_{28}^K
       °tiguhya<br/>m\mathbf{N}_{82}^K;°diguhyakam\mathbf{N}_{28}^K
268
        astakam N_{28}^K; astakām N_{28}^K
269
       ca N_{28}^K; tu N_{82}^K
270
       yānti N_{28}^K; śānti N_{82}^K
       amareśvaram N_{28}^{K} (hypermetrical); amreśvaram N_{82}^{K}
       naimiśa<br/>m\mathbf{N}_{82}^K;naimiśa \mathbf{N}_{28}^K
273
       aṣāḍhaṃ \mathcal{N}_{82}^K;aṣāḍhi° \mathcal{N}_{28}^K
       °<br/>śvarañ ca\mathbf{N}_{28}^{K};°<br/>śvaro 'tha \mathbf{N}_{82}^{K}
       kṣatram rudrasya kāmikam N_{28}^K; kṣatram rudrasya hitakāmikam N_{82}^K
       padam N_{82}^{K}; pamam N_{28}^{K}
```

do imply close textual affinity, and it seems likely that the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ borrowed these portions of text from the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ for the reasons listed above. If the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ was indeed the basis for these parallels as they appear in the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$, then the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ must have been composed after the compilation of the $Śivadharmaś\bar{a}stra$ in the sixth or seventh century.²⁷⁷

Borrowings from the Niśvāsamukha by the Śivadharmasangraha

Let us now consider the textual development which the Niśvāsamukha underwent after its composition. Thanks to the initial observations of Mr. Sambandhaśivācārya and A. K. Acharya, we have been able to gather clear evidence that the Niśvāsamukha also served as template from which a later text, the Śivadharmasaigraha, borrowed. The title of the Śivadharmasaigraha is directly indicative of the nature of the text it contains, since Śivadharmasaigraha literally means 'collection of teachings of Śiva', suggesting that it comprises teachings gathered from earlier Śaiva sources. This initial impression is directly reinforced by an explicit attestation, penned by the author (1.3), that it is on the basis of the kernel of the compositions of Śaṃbhu, Sanatkumāra, Vāyu and Dvaipāyana that he composed (kriyate) the ensuing compendium of teachings Dharmasaigraha (i.e. the Śivadharmasaigraha):

śambhoh sanatkumārasya vāyor dvaipāyanasya ca \parallel granthasāram samuddhrtya kriyate dharmasamgrahah $\parallel 1.3 \parallel$

The [Siva]dharmasangraha is composed upon having extracted the essence of the scriptures of Sambhu, Sanatkumāra, Vāyu and Dvaipāyana.

Among the twelve chapters of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha, the first three chapters, which have now been edited by A. K. Acharya, 278 comprise moralising or sermonising counsel, in the form of well-spoken advice' (subhāṣitas). Chapter 4 then gives a description of the hells, the narakas, which exhibits a certain degree of correspondence with the Skandapurāṇa: some of its verses are identical with their counterparts in chapters 37–47 of the Skandapurāṇa. Chapters 5 to 9 closely parallel parts of the Niśvāsamukha. Chapters 10 to 12 present the Purāṇic cosmography; chapter 10 is nearly identical to the fifth chapter of the Guhyasūtra; chapter 11 of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha has considerable overlap with parts of the sixth and seventh chapters of the Guhyasūtra; chapter 12 corresponds to verses 209–355 of the thirty-ninth chapter of the Vāyupurāṇa.

²⁷⁷ See fn. 246.

²⁷⁸ A. K. Acharya (2009*).

²⁷⁹ See Bakker, Bisschop & Yokochi (2014: 82–95).

The $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ appears to be the first text of the $\acute{S}ivadharma$ -corpus to incorporate tantric material. It does so by drawing intensively from chapter five, six, and seven of the $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$.

Clearly it makes sense to take the above-quoted introductory verse seriously—and to try and locate the texts upon which the compendium has drawn. To begin with, we may note that the scripture 'of Śambhu' may refer to the $Niśv\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$, which we know to be ascribed to Śiva, since the Śivadharmasangraha demonstrably draws on the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ and $Guhyas\bar{u}tra$. As for the second author mentioned, Sanatkumāra, it appears likely that the author of the compendium had the $Skandapur\bar{a}na$ in mind, since this $Pur\bar{a}na$ was supposedly narrated by Sanatkumāra. Regarding the textual evidence for this contention, the fourth chapter of the Śivadharmasangraha displays parallels with the $Skandapur\bar{a}na$. The third mention, $V\bar{a}yu$, plainly refers to the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$. As regards the final reference, since [Krṣṇa-]dvaipāyana (i.e. $Vy\bar{a}sa$) is the purported author of the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$, 'Dvaipāyana' could be a reference to the epic. However, this remains to be investigated.

Extent and type of borrowing

It is important to mention here that, as we will show in the section below, the Śiva-dharmasaṅgraha is not merely copying verbatim from the Niśvāsamukha. Instead, it standardises irregular forms and corrects awkward syntax. The underlying source text consulted by the author of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha, it should be noted, comprises the Laukika and Vaidika sections of the Niśvāsamukha, from which, as we shall presently see, the Śivadharmasaṅgraha draws heavily. The Śivadharmasaṅgraha did not appropriate the Ādhyātmika and Atimārga portions of the Niśvāsamukha.

The following comparative table shows the locations and scope of the textual parallels between the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ and the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$:

Niśvāsamukha	Śivadharmasaṅgraha
1.1–1.57	_
_	5.1–5.14
1.58–1.63	5.15–5.20
1.64	_
1.65–1.87	5.21-5.43
1.88–1.92	_
_	5.44ab
1.93a-1.98b	5.44c-5.49
_	5.50ab
1.98c-1.100b	5.50c–5.52b
_	5.52c-5.54
1.100c-1.107b	5.55-5.61
1.107c-1.114b	_
1.114c-1.124b	5.62-5.71
1.124c–1.125b	5.72

_	5.73-5.75
1.125c-1.127b	5.76–5.77
1.127c-1.154	5.83a-5.110b
1.155ab	
1.155c -1.156b	5.110cd
1.156c-1.158b	5.111a-5.112
1.158c-1.150b	_
	5.113-5.119
1.150c–1.159b	
1.159c-1.160	5.120a-5.121b
1.161ab	_
_	5.121cd
1.161c–1.162b	5.122
_	5.123
1.162c–1.165b	5.124-5.126
_	5.127
1.165c-1.169b	5.128–5.131
	5.132
1.169c-1.171	5.133–5.135
1.172	5.136
1.173–1.176	5.137–5.140
1.177ab	_
_	5.141a-5.143b
1.177cd	5.143c-5.144b
1.178	5.144c-5.145b
_	5.145c-5.149
1.179–1.185	5.150-5.156
2.1a-2.18b	6.1a-6.17f
_	6.18-6.38
2.18c-2.35	6.39a-6.56b
2.36	_
2.37a-2.38b	6.56c-6.57
_	6.58
2.38c-2.39b	6.59
_	6.60-64
2.39c–2.41b	6.65–6.66
_	6.70c–6.76b
2.41c-2.42b	6.76c–6.77b
_	6.77c–6.78b
2.42c-2.43b	6.78c–6.78f
2.43c-2.46	6.67a–6.70b
_	6.79-6.88

2.47-2.48	6.89-6.90
_	6.91-6.94
_	6.97
	6.105
	6.107-6.117
2.49	6.118
2.50	6.106
_	6.119-6.122
2.51	6.123
2.53a-2.56b	_
_	6.138–6.153b
2.56cd	_
2.57–2.70	6.124-6.137
2.71a-2.80b	6.153c-6.162
2.80c–2.82b	6.95–6.96
2.82c-2.86b	6.98–6.101
2.86c-2.88b	6.103-6.104
2.88c-2.115	6.163-6.189
2.116	6.190
2.117	6.191
2.118	6.192ab
2.119a-2.120b	6.192c–6.193d
2.120c-2.121b	6.194
2.121c-122	_
_	6.195
3.1a-3.13b	7.1a–7.13b
3.13c-3.14b	7.13cd
3.14c-3.15d	7.14a–7.15b
_	7.15c-7.16b
3.16	7.16c–7.17b
3.17–3.18	_
3.19–3.22	7.17c–7.21b
3.23	7.22
3.24ab	7.21cd
3.24c–3.25b	_
3.25c–3.30b	7.23-7.27
	7.24–7.40
3.30c-3.34b	7.41–7.44
3.35c–3.36b	
3.36c-3.37	7.45a-7.46b
3.38–3.42	_
	7.46c-7.52
T and the second	

3.43a-3.56f	7.53a-7.67b
	7.67c- 7.69b
3.57–3.69	7.69c-7.72b
3.07 3.03	7.72c-7.124
3.60-3.83	8.1a-8.25b
3.84ab	8.25c–8.26b?
3.84cd	8.26cd
3.85ab	8.26ab
3.85cd	8.27ab
3.86ab	8.27cd
_	8.28ab
3.86c-3.151	8.28c-8.93
3.152–3.153	_
	8.94-8.108
3.154	8.110
3.155	8.109
3.156a- 3.158b	_
_	8.111-8.114
3.158c-3.163	8.115a-8.120b
3.164	8.120c–8.121b
3.165a-3.177b	8.121c-8.133
3.177c-3.179b	8.134-8.135
3.179c-3.194b	8.136-8.150
3.194cd	8.151
3.195a-3.196b	8.152a-8.152f
3.196cd	
4.1–4.7b	9.1–9.7b
4.8–4.12	9.7c-9.12b
4.13-4.14	
4.15–4.16	9.12c-9.14b
4.17–4.19	
	9.14c-9.23b
4.20a–4.31b	9.23c–9.34d
4.31cd	
4.32a–4.36b	9.35a-9.39b
4.32a-4.300 4.36c-4.37b	9.39c-9.40
4.37c-4.41	9.41–9.44
4.42–4.137	

Table 2: Comparative table of parallels between the $\emph{Niśv\bar{a}samukha}$ and $\emph{Śivadharmasangraha}$

From this table we can see that the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ draws particularly on

the first three chapters of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ quite intensively. Other than that, the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ also evidently borrows the first part of the fourth chapter from the Vedic section of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. As we have noted in the opening sections of this study, the latter offers a stratified scheme of Five Streams, four of which are presented as inferior, yet conducive, preliminary stages which culminate in the soteriologically most rewarding path, the Mantramārga. No such idea—nor indeed any structured stratification of the content at all—is present in the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$. Instead, the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$, a text of lay $\acute{S}aivism$, overtly declares its much more limited ambition of simply compiling materials drawn mostly from $\acute{S}aiva$ sources in order to present a coherent overview over the materials assembled. The rationale behind the impulse of composition of the two texts is therefore fundamentally dissimilar. Thus, the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ omits a number of passages pivotal to the intentions of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Amongst these omissions are the following:

- 1. The frame story of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ (1.1–57).
- 2. Passages that do not accord with the setting of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha are omitted because the Śivadharmasaṅgraha is not framed as a dialogue between Śiva and Devī reported by Nandikeśvara. Niśvāsamukha 1.64 presents an illustrative example:

evam śrutam mayā pūrvvan devyām kathayato harāt | tat sarvvan kathitan tubhyam yat phalam lingapūrane ||

This is what I heard from Hara, as he was telling it to the goddess, and I have told it all to you, namely what the fruit of covering the $li\dot{n}qa$ ($li\dot{n}qap\bar{u}rane$) is.

3. Those passages that directly reflect the conceptual framework of the Five Streams have also been omitted—with the noteworthy exception of the Vedic section.²⁸¹

At present, we cannot fully comprehend the principles of selection of the Siva-dharmasaigraha. For example, the passage in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ which speaks of offering a black woollen garment and a buffalo (2.52–53), has been reduced to two lines when incorporated into the Sivadharmasaigraha. While this could be the result of a slip in transmission, it is possible that the reductor felt it was unnecessary to adopt it, although it is difficult to fathom why, for the section in question fits the context and is readily comprehensible. Other comparable cases could be cited.

The passage of Śivadharmasangraha 9.44cdef reads: vedadharmo mayā proktaḥ svarganaiśreyasaḥ padam | uttareṇaiva vaktreṇa vyākhyātaś ca samāsataḥ || . This, we think, is the inadvertent result of careless borrowing: the Śivadharmasangraha does not claim to be sourced in any of Śiva's faces.

Additions in the Śivadharmasangraha

As the Śivadharmasaigraha is a compendium which draws on a multiplicity of preexisting sources, it is to be expected that it features both interpolated and original material that does not originate from the Niśvāsamukha. In the following example, we see that the Śivadharmasaigraha integrates a substantial passage, of twenty-one verses, which is inserted in the middle of what is verse 2.18 of the Niśvāsamukha and which introduces both a new topic—the procedure for worshipping a liṅga made of sand—and a new speaker (Dadhīci). Most probably the Śivadharmasaṅgraha borrowed this segment from another source where Dadhīci was the narrator. In doing so, the compiler-author effectively split a verse of the Niśvāsamukha in two. We have not been able to identify the source of the borrowed passage. There are further such examples, but we will restrict ourselves to just this one. Niśvāsamukha 2.18 reads:

lakṣeṇaikena gaṇatāṃ koṭim abhyarcya gacchati | svaśarīrena sāyojyam punaś ca na nivarttate ||

By worshipping [it] ten thousand times, he will obtain the state of Gaṇa, and by worshipping [it] one hundred thousand times, he will obtain (gac-chati) union with [Śiva] in his own body (svaśarīreṇa) and will never come back [to worldly existence] again.

In the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ this becomes (6.18–39b):

```
lakṣṇaikena gaṇatāṃ koṭyām abhyarcya gacchati ||
dadhīcir uvāca | 282
kiṃ phalaṃ bālukāliṅgasyārccanād api kiṃ bhavet |
kathaṃ vā pūjayet karma vratañ caiva katham bhavet ||
maheśvara uvāca |
śṛṇu me kathayiṣyāmi bālukāliṅgam arcanam |
[...]
```

etat purā mayā khyātaṃ na deyaṃ yasya kasyacit| svaśarīreṇa sāyojyaṃ punaś ca na nivarttate|

By worshipping [it] ten thousand times, one will obtain the state of Gaṇa, and by worshipping [it] one hundred thousand times, one will obtain (gacchati)

Note that Dadhīci does not appear in the *Niśvāsamukha*. Either Devī poses questions to Śiva or the sages entreat Nandikeśvara to share his knowledge. In the *Śivadharmasaṅgraha*, Dadhīci appears in this isolated instance only.

...

Dadhīci spoke:

What fruit does one obtain from worshipping a *linga* made of sand? How is one supposed to worship it? What is the procedure [of worship]? And how should one practise the observance?

Maheśvara spoke:

Listen to me. I will tell [you] the [procedure of] worshipping the *linga* made of sand.

[...]

This [knowledge that] I taught earlier $(pur\bar{a})$ should not be given to everybody. ... [he will obtain] union with [Śiva] in his own body and will never come back [to worldly existence] again.

Grammatical Changes

One of the characteristics of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha^{283}$ is that it shares features of $ai\acute{s}a$ language with the rest of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$. We will show that the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ has removed these archaic irregularities and replaced them with what are considered 'standard' Sanskrit forms. As the rest of the text of the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ is mostly written in Pāṇinian Sanskrit, we believe these changes were implemented in the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ to smoothen out the text. This process of 'streamlining' grammar is typically more likely to be a shift from $ai\acute{s}a$ language to standardized Sanskrit—not the reverse. As a rule of thumb, textual parallels between texts displaying $ai\acute{s}a$ -grammar and texts with standardized Sanskrit should raise the suspicion that the standardised version is likely to be the 'younger' text and has borrowed from the non-standard one. ²⁸⁴

We present here five types of grammatical modification in the parts of the text borrowed from the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ by the $\acute{S}ivadharmasa\acute{n}graha$. These involve verb-forms, nominal forms, regularisation of sandhi, compounds and gender. We are confronted with changes of this type time and again throughout the text, and the examples quoted below are characteristic of a more widespread phenomenon:

For a more detailed account of aisa grammar, refer to p. 113 ff.

Note however, that the *Manusmṛti*'s standard Sanskrit being reformulated along *aiśa*-lines in the *Niśvāsamukha* can readily be cited as counter-example to this general rule.

REGULARISATION OF VERB-FORMS

- Correction of irregular optative: dadet (NM 1.60b) to dadyāt (ŚiDhS 5.17ab)
- Correction of irregular optative: $p\bar{u}jye$ (NM 2.30a) to $p\bar{u}jayet$ (ŚiDhS 6.50c)
- Correction of irregular lyap: pūjya (NM 3.160c) to saṃpūjya (ŚiDhS 8.117a)

REGULARISATION OF NOMINAL FORMS

- Correction of irregular nominative: $k r s \bar{n} \bar{a} s t a mic a t u r d a s \bar{i}$ (NM 1.69d) to $k r s \bar{n} \bar{a} s t a m y \bar{a} m$ (SiDhS 5.25c)
- Correction of irregular numerical form: $trim\acute{s}abhir\ lakṣaih$ (NM 2.7c) to $trim\acute{s}allakṣaih$ (ŚiDhS 6.7c)
- Correction of irregular nominative singular: $paramesthinah^{285}$ (NM 3.65ab) to $paramesth\bar{\iota}$ (SiDhS 3.65b)

REGULARISATION OF Sandhi

- Correction of double sandhi: yoddharet (NM 1.87b) to uddharet (SiDhS 5.43b)
- Correction of irregular extended ending: kuruteti²⁸⁶ (NM 3.58d) to kurute tu (SiDhS 7.70cd).
- Correction of irregular sandhi of the pronoun: so dhruvam (NM 4.16d) to sa dhruvam (ŚiDhS 9.14ab)

REGULARISATION OF COMPOUNDS

- Correction of inflected form: śaṣkulyāmodakāni (1.164b) to śaṣkulīmodakāni (ŚiDhS 5.125cd)
- Justifying an otiose sa: guḍakṣ̄rrasapāyasaiḥ (NM 3.80d) to guḍakṣ̄rraiḥ sapāyasaiḥ (ŚiDhS 8.21d)

REGULARISATION OF GENDER

- Correction of irregular masculine to standard neuter: °puṣpaḥ (NM 1.147d) to °puṣpam (ŚiDhS 5.103b)
- Correction of irregular neuters to regular masculines: kumbhīpākan tu nirayan (NM 2.44c) to kumbhīpākas tu nirayo (ŚiDhS 6.68a)

This form is the same in accusative plural and genitive singular too. Consulting other instances (Niśvāsamukha 1.58b, 1.115d, 2.34d etc.) we could derive that this is more likely to be a nominative singular.

²⁸⁶ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 122.

SYNTACTICAL CHANGES

The Śivadharmasaigraha does not merely correct obvious grammatical mistakes in the borrowed text, but also changes the syntax substantially with the intention of clarifying the original text. There are many instances of this type of syntactical change, and most of these will be discussed in the notes to the translation of the Niśvāsamukha. But let us quote one example showing how the Śivadharmasaigraha corrects awkard syntax and irregular morphology:

```
Niśvāsamukha (4.15c–16b)
asvayankṛtavāṇijye bhūtādroheṇa jīvate ||
japti juhoti vā nityam sa svarqaphalabhāq bhavet |
```

Without engaging in trade, he lives without harming living beings. He should regularly do mantra-recitation (japti) and $(v\bar{a})$ perform oblations; [by doing so] he will partake of the fruit of heaven.

Śivadharmasangraha (9.13)

 $v\bar{a}$ nijy \bar{a} di tyajet karma bh \bar{u} tadroha \tilde{n} ca sarvad \bar{a} | $jap\bar{a}gnihomasamyuktah$ sa svarggaphalabh $\bar{a}g$ bhavet ||

He should avoid participating in such activities as trade, and [should] always [avoid] harming living beings. Engaged in mantra-recitation and fire-oblations, he will partake of the fruit of heaven.

Here the Śivadharmasaṅgraha corrects asvayaṅkṛtavāṇijye, apparently used as a foreshortened instrumental, to $v\bar{a}nijy\bar{a}di$ tyajet karma, then replaces $bh\bar{u}t\bar{a}drohena$ $j\bar{v}ate$, with $bh\bar{u}tadrohañ$ ca sarvadā. As for japti juhoti $v\bar{a}$ nityaṃ (where japti is used for japati and both verbs should be optative or marked in some way as being part of a conditional clause), it is replaced by japāqnihomasaṃyuktaḥ.

Alteration of Content

Comparing the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ and the source passages of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, in some cases, we detect a modification of the meaning in the borrowed passages. These may be grouped in two categories, which we shall examine below:

- 1. deliberate alteration concerning rewards and
- 2. deliberate alteration of the essential meaning.

Modifications Concerning Rewards

Especially with regards to the descriptions of rewards promised for engaging in religious practice, the $\acute{S}ivadharmasa\acute{n}graha$ has considerably altered the passages it has borrowed. Typically, the religious practices themselves remain identical, whereas

the results ascribed to them are significantly different. In a few cases, it is possible that such changes are the result of graphic confusion while copying, as in the case of $\dot{sivalayam}$ (NM 1.82d) $\approx sur\bar{a}layam$ (SiDhS 5.83d).

- Change of 'Brahma-hood' to 'Skanda-hood': brahmatvam (NM 2.7b) to $skandam^{287}$ (ŚiDhS 6.7b)
- Change from 'attaining the world of the moon' to 'attaining the world of Indra': somapuram (NM 2.59c) to śakrapuram (ŚiDhS 6.126c)
- Change of 'the fruit of rejoicing in heaven' to attaining the 'world of Kāmadeva': divi (NM 2.65d) to $k\bar{a}madevapuram$ (ŚiDhS 6.132c)

Modifications of the Fundamental Meaning

Occasionally, small changes make significant alterations to the essential meaning of the borrowed text, as in this example:

```
Niśvāsamukha (2.110)

atidānavidhiḥ khyāto lokānāṃ hitakāmyayā |

dine dine ca yo dadyād dānan tañ ca nibodha me ||
```

I have taught the injunction of consummate offering $(atid\bar{a}navidhi\hbar)$ for the benefit of the worlds. If someone makes an offering every day, listen to the fruit of that offering too.

Śivadharmasangraha (6.184c-185b)

```
iti dānavidhiś cokto lokānām hitakāmyayā || dine dine ca yad dānam tac cāpi hi nibodha me|
```

I have thus taught the injunction of offering ($iti\ d\bar{a}navidhih$) for the benefit of the worlds. [If someone makes] an offering every day, listen to the fruit of that offering too.

Here the pronouncement of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ is about a 'consummate offering' $(atid\bar{a}na^{\circ})$, a problematic term, as its meaning may differ from context to context. ²⁸⁸ The $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$, by writing $iti~d\bar{a}na^{\circ}$ 'thus offering, makes this kind of offering disappear, and ends up with a different and more banal sense.

In sum, the Śivadharmasaṅgraha has often rephrased, replacing uncommon words, structures, and syntax. In doing so, it has banalised the text, but it has also often clarified it. The fact that the Śivadharmasaṅgraha chose to borrow from the Niśvāsamukha suggests that the Niśvāsamukha had acquired and still enjoyed

We have taken Skanda in the sense of Skanda-hood here.

See footnote to verse 2.105d on page 279.

some authority among Śaivas at the time the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ was composed. ²⁸⁹ If not, the redactor of the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ would presumably have been less likely to draw upon it.

Noteworthy Irregularities in the Niśvāsamukha

As noted towards the beginning of this introduction, the text of the Niśvāsamukha depends on outside sources to furnish a substantial part of its textual fabric. This becomes evident also stylistically, since the mode of expression varies greatly throughout the text. Some of the unevenness of the text may have been caused by the uneven process of recontextualization of loaned passages.²⁹⁰ At the same time, the process of transmission may have added to the textual inconsistencies, as would have the introduction of 'aiśa' forms.²⁹¹ However, what might be worth considering is the possibility that at least some of the uncertainties about the text and its interpretation may be attributable to our limited knowledge of the community which produced the work.

As a first example, let us invoke *Niśvāsamukha* 1.51–52, which presents the five streams of knowledge and their goals in accordance with the Mantramārgic perspective:

```
īśvara uvāca |
pañca srotā mayā khyātā lokānāṃ hitakāmyayā |
tān pravakṣyāmi sarvāṃs tu śṛṇuṣva vahitā priye || 1.51 ||
svarggāpavarggahetoś ca tan nibodha yathārthataḥ |
laukikaṃ sampravakṣyāmi yena svargaṃ vrajanti te || 1.52 ||
```

Īśvara spoke:

I have [elsewhere] taught Five Streams [of knowledge] on account of my desire for the welfare of the worlds. I will explain (pravakṣyāmi) all of them, o beloved one! Please listen attentively. And for the sake of heaven and liberation (svargāpavargahetoḥ), understand this (tan) exactly. I shall teach [first] the worldly [stream] (laukikam), by which people attain heaven (svargam).

Viewed from a logical perspective, the above passage ($Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ 1.51–52) contains a somewhat problematic statement, particularly as regards the Laukika stream and the Mantramārga. First of all, the fifth stream, which is not the subject matter of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, does not topicalize either svarga ('heaven') or apavarga

A. K. Acharya (2009: 91) argues that the Śivadharmasangraha can be dated to the $9^{\rm th}$ and $10^{\rm th}$ centuries CE.

Schreiner, ed. (1997), in this regard, speaks of 'textual interstices' (*Textfugen*) and 'textual hinges' or 'transition points' (*Schaltstellen*), which constitute disruptive factors in interpolated materials, and moreover mark the contours of the borrowed passages.

²⁹¹ See p. 113.

('final beatitude'). Instead, it presents the somewhat parallel but nonetheless different concepts of bhukti ('enjoyment of supernatural powers') and mukti ('liberation'). Secondly, this passage clearly mentions that the Laukika stream professes to lead to heaven, and 'heaven' is designated as being (merely) a 'worldly' 293 state. Despite that, we encounter a passage (1.86) in the same Laukika section that declares that union with $Siva(s\bar{a}yojyam)$ —usually a supramundane state—results from bathing a linga with ghee for two years. 294

It thus appears that the soteriological contours of the Laukika stream and the Mantramārga have been presented in a manner that has been not made fully consistent, and that there are instances of conceptual imbrication. To cite another instance, the passage spanning 1.118c–119b in the same Laukika section states that if one worships Śiva by offering a muktimanḍapa with devotion, no rebirth ensues—which again implies that the final goal of the Mantramārga can be achieved by means of a Laukika practice. ²⁹⁵ As in the case of the mention of 'union with Śiva', such passages in the Laukika section seem to contradict the statement of 1.52cd above that the Laukika stream leads merely to heaven. This inconsistency here may have resulted from the attempt of the author of the Niśvāsamukha to present these teachings of the Laukika stream within a Mantramārgic framework. In doing so, the author appears to attempt to confine the benefits offered by the Laukika stream to those of an inferior, preliminary stage, presumably in order to highlight the supremacy of the Mantramārga teachings. This attempt, however, leaves traces of doctrinal tension within the text as its corollary.

Another passage displaying a degree of logical inconsistency is the list of hells in 4.100a–105b. Because this extract is taught in a section that relates the views and practices of the Kapālavratins, it seems likely that this passage was borrowed from a now lost Kāpālika source. Although thirty-five named hells are listed, the list is

saccakena tu lingāni pārthivāni tu kārayet | sahasrapūjanāt so hi labhate īpsitam phalam || lakṣeṇaikena gaṇatām koṭim abhyarcya gacchati | svaśarīreṇa sāyojyam punaś ca na nivarttate ||

If someone makes [and worships] earthen lingas made from a mould (saccakena) a thousand times, he will certainly (hi) obtain the desired fruits. By worshipping [it] ten thousand times, he will obtain the state of Gaṇa, and by worshipping [it] one hundred thousand times, he will obtain (gacchati) union with [Śiva] in his own body $(svaśar\overline{v}rena)$ and will never come back [to worldly existence] again.

²⁹² GOODALL et al. 2015: 15, 32, 59 and 73.

Refer to §2 on page 38 above.

From this passage alone, one might doubt whether union with Śiva $(s\bar{a}yojyam)$ refers to a supramundane state of liberation, yet this is how it is used in another passage of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ (2.17–18): that latter section intimates that by obtaining union with [Śiva] one is never reborn, showing that there is no difference between union with Śiva and final liberation:

Niśvāsamukha 1.118c–119b: muktimaṇḍapadānena bhaktyā tu yo 'rcayec chivam || na tasya punar āvṛttir ggaṇaś caivottamo bhavet |

followed by the assertion that there are thirty-two (4.105cd). Since thirty-two is a standard number featuring abundantly in the Mantramārga system, ²⁹⁶ it is possible that the author of this passage therefore favoured that number. We therefore guess that the last line (4.105cd) in the following passage might have been added without previously counting the number of items in the list—or possibly with a generous laissez-faire attitude that would allow for a few of the individual hells to be grouped together under one rubric. The passage reads as follows:

```
avīcī kṛminicayo vaitaraṇī kūṭaśālmalī |
giriryamala ucchvāso nirucchvāso hy athāparaḥ || 4.100 ||
pūtimānsadravaś caiva trapus taptajatus tathā |
paṃkālayo 'sthibhaṅgaś ca krakacacchedam eva ca || 4.101 ||
medo 'sṛkpūyahradaś ca tīkṣṇāyastuṇḍam eva ca |
aṅgārarāśibhuvanaḥ śakuniś cāmbarīṣakaḥ || 4.102 ||
--- 'nyā hy asitālavanas tathā |
sūcīmukhaḥ kṣuradhāraḥ kālasūtro 'tha parvataḥ || 4.103 ||
padmaś caiva samākhyāto mahāpadmas tathaiva ca |
apāko sāra uṣṇaś ca sañjīvanasujīvanau || 4.104 ||
śītatamondhatamasau mahārauravarauravau |
dvātriṃśad ete narakā mayā devi prakīrttitāḥ || 4.105 ||
[1] Avīcī, [2] Kṛminicaya, [3] Vaitaraṇī, [4] Kuṭaśālmalī, [5] Giriryamala,
[6] Ucchvāsa, and then [7] Nirucchvāsa [8], Pūtimāṃsadrava, [9] Trapu,
[10] Taptajatu then [11] Paṃkālaya, [12] Asthibhaṅga, [13] Kraka-
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[1] Avīcī, [2] Kṛminicaya, [3] Vaitaraṇī, [4] Kuṭaśālmalī, [5] Giriryamala, [6] Ucchvāsa, and then [7] Nirucchvāsa [8], Pūtimāṃsadrava, [9] Trapu, [10] Taptajatu then [11] Paṃkālaya, [12] Asthibhaṅga, [13] Krakacaccheda and [14] Medo'sṛkpūyahrada, [15] Tīkṣṇāyastuṇḍa, then [16] Aṅgārarāśibhuvana, [17] Śakuni, [18] Ambarīṣaka, [19] Asitāladruma, [20] Asitālavana, then [21] Sūcīmukha, [22] Kṣuradhāra, [23] Kālasūtra, then [24] Parvata, then [25] Padma is taught, then [26] Mahāpadma, then [27] Apāka, [28] Sāra, [29] Uṣṇa, [30] Sañjīvana, [31] Sujīvana, [32] Śītatamas, [33] Andhatamas, [34] Mahāraurava and [35] Raurava; I have taught, o goddess, these thirty-two hells.

It is to be noted that a list of thirty-two hells found in the inscription of the Angkor Vat bas-relief is particularly close to the list of the hells of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ both in names and ordering principle applied. ²⁹⁷

The Aṣṭamūrti-hymn in Niśvāsamukha 1.30–41 arguably does not smoothly fit the context in which it occurs and is perhaps also interpolated from a different source. Note, first of all, that the hymn features a phalaśruti, which is typically included at the end of self-contained texts. Secondly, were this portion removed—as

⁹⁶ See Sanderson 2003-4: 422 and Goodall 2004: 282–283, fn. 487.

See Sanderson 2003-4: 422. The list of hells found in Angkor Vat may therefore be further evidence of knowledge of the *Niśvāsa*-corpus being transmitted beyond the Indian subcontinent (Sanderson 2001: 7–8, fn. 5), for we already know from Khmer inscriptions that the *Niśvāsa* was known and employed among royalty in rituals.

will be shown in the following extract—the preceding (1.29) and the following textual segment (1.42) of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ appear to interlock seamlessly, with Nandin first introducing a question of the goddess and then supplying that question:

```
mah\bar{a}devy\bar{a}yath<br/>āprṣṭassarvvaduḥkhaharo haraḥ | tath\bar{a}vakṣyāmi vi<br/>prendrāḥ praṇipatya śivaṃ śuciḥ || 1.29 ||
```

[...]—[ostensibly interpolated passage]

```
devy uvāca |
anādinidhano devo hy ajam akṣaram avyayaḥ |
sarvagas sarvarūpo 'si sarvajñaś caikakāraṇaḥ || 1.42 ||
```

I will teach, o best among Brāhmins, just as Śiva, the destroyer of all suffering [did], when requested by the great goddess after prostrating before Śiva and purifying myself.

[...]—[ostensibly interpolated passage]

Devī spoke: You are the god [having] no beginning, nor end (anādinid-hano), devoid of birth and destruction, imperishable, all-pervading and having all forms. You are omniscient [and] the sole cause [of the whole universe].

At first glance, not all the unevennesses in the text appear to have arisen due to textual borrowing—some may rather have occurred during the course of the subsequent transmission of the text. To cite one possible example: in a passage where the rewards for worshipping different deities are indicated, the verse relating the worship of Kubera on the third day of the fortnight lacks such an explanation of the reward for worshipping the deity:

```
tṛtīyāyām tu sampūjya yakṣam hemamayīn gadām \mid nāmāny ālikhya dātavyā bhājane ghṛtapūrite \parallel 3.164 \parallel caturtthyān dantinan dadyāt sauvarṇṇan nāma-cānkitam \mid vighneśvarasya devasya ghṛtapūrṇṇodumbare sthitam \parallel 3.165 \parallel
```

Having [first] worshipped Kubera (yakṣam) on the third day [of the fortnight], one should give a golden mace [to a Brāhmin], writing the names of [Kubera on it and putting it] in a vessel filled with clarified butter. On the fourth day [of the fortnight], one should give a golden elephant marked with the names of the god Vighneśvara placed in [a vessel made of] udumbara wood.

Instead of relating the reward for performing the worship of Kubera, as expected, the text proceeds at once to relate the worship of Vighneśvara. Since we are presumably missing a single line here, one possible explanation is that it might have been left out by a transmitter as a result of eye-skip. However, the fact that the very same segment—mention of the rewards for worshipping a particular deity—is

again missing in the instance of the worship of Devī,²⁹⁸ we should mention another possible scenario. Since such a coincidence would be arguably unlikely to occur accidentally when copying, it is perhaps just as likely to be an authorial feature. Perhaps the author drew the exposition of performing the worship of diverse deities from one source and the respective rewards from another source, from oral tradition, from floating verses, or from his own inventiveness. In the process, the exposition of the worship of two deities—Kubera and Devī—may, because of oversight, never actually have been supplied with the corresponding rewards.

We may conclude our lengthy discussion of borrowings and parallels with the observation that the *Niśvāsamukha* is plainly a syncretic composition—one whose hybrid nature, by the way, cannot simply be described by the label 'Mantramārgic Śaivism'. But it is hard to judge to what extent irregularities of the text are authorial, and to what extent they are caused by scribal error during the process of transmission. This is all the more difficult since we have only a single manuscript witness to the text.

Structural Overview and Summary of Content

The $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ is divided into four chapters (paṭalas). The first begins with the frame story in which the entirety of the $Niśv\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$ is enveloped. Thereafter, the Five Streams of knowledge are briefly taught, after which lay religious duties are expounded, ending with the worshipping of the linga and the rewards of doing so. The second chapter relates how to fashion different kinds of lingas, installing them and worshipping them on a daily basis, the rewards of such worship and various affiliated donative practices. The third chapter discusses sacred places of pilgrimage, the benefits of worshipping various gods and performing different religious observances. The fourth chapter relates the so-called Vedic, \bar{A} dhy \bar{a} tmika and Atim \bar{a} rga streams.

navamyāṃ siṃha nāmena devyāś cābhyarcitena ca | ghṛtatāmrasya dānāc ca bhakṣaiḥ payaghaṭānvitaiḥ || yamāya mahiṣan dadyān nāmāṅkan tu ghṛtaplutam |

On the ninth day [of a fortnight], [one should offer a statuette of] a lion [after first] worshipping $Dev\bar{\iota}$ by [calling out] her name[s], [and] also by giving a copper [container] of ghee and [some] eatables, together with pots filled with milk, [to a Brāhmin]. For [the worship of] Yama $(yam\bar{a}ya)$, one should give [a statuette of] a buffalo covered in ghee, marked with the names [of Yama to a Brāhmin].

Instead of mentioning the expected rewards for performing this act of worship, the text instead immediately proceeds to describe the procedure for worshipping Yama.

Here is the account in question of the worship of Devī (3.177c–178):

Chapter One

[Frame story: the Five Streams]

Ricīka (=Ŗcīka) inquires of Matanga about a miracle that he had seen in the Naimiṣa forest. (1–4)

Matanga answers Ricīka (=Rcīka) in brief that Brahmā and Viṣṇu were initiated, and, upon hearing this, sages gathered in the forest of Devadāruvana/(5–13)

Nandin is granted the authority to teach the sages. (14–17)

Ricīka (=Rcīka) asks Matanga how Nandin could be the teacher of the sages and how he could grant initiation to them. (18)

Matanga relates how the sages praised Nandikeśvara. (19-25)

Nandin initiates the sages and promises to impart to them the Five Streams of knowledge as they were revealed to Devī by Hara. (26–29)

Nandin bows down to Siva and praises him in what is called an $A s tam \bar{u}rti$ -hymn. (30–41)

Devī recites a hymn to Śiva. (41–45)

Devī informs Śiva about her compassion for afflicted beings and proceeds to ask how they can be freed from affliction. (45–50)

Isvara gives a brief account of the Five Streams of knowledge. (51–56)

Devī asks Īśvara to describe the five streams of knowledge in detail. (57)

[The Laukika stream]

Īśvara teaches the fruits of making a fountain of drinking water, creating a lotus pond, offering a house to a Brāhmin, making a garden at a temple, offering the gift of a flower or a garland, and covering a *linga* with flowers. (58–63)

Nandin reiterates what he had heard when Hara was teaching Devī regarding the fruit of covering a *liṅqa* with flowers. (64)

The sages inquire about how the god is to be pleased and about the fruits of worshipping him by different means and with diverse substances. (65–70)

[Worship of the *linga*]

Nandin tells of the fruits of cleansing a linga, worshipping it with different substances on a daily basis, such as leaves, flowers, fruits, curd, milk, ghee, pavitra (i.e. $ku\acute{s}a$ grass), and the sounding of 'HUDDUN': (71–76)

The fruits of bathing a *linga* with water, curds, ghee, milk, honey and with the five products of a cow. (76–97)

The fruits of besmearing a linga with sandal paste mixed with camphor, burning guggulu in front of a linga, offering clothes, banners or awnings to the linga. (98–107b)

The fruits of offering a golden bell made of different substances, a yak-tail fly-whisk, a girdle and waist-cord, a crown, an ear-ring and a multicoloured fabric, a turban, gems, ornaments, adornments, and a muktimaṇḍapa to the liṅga. (107c–119b)

The fruits of performing the rite of besmearing with different substances, offering bracelets, armbands, gems, scentless flowers, and covering a *linga* with flowers. (119c–123b)

The beginning of the teaching of worshipping the *linga* with fragrant flowers. (123c–124b)

The fruits of offering a fragrant flower, the names of flowers, whose fragrance Śaṅkara [delights in], and the fruits of worshipping Śiva with them. (124c–128b)

The fruits of worshipping a linga with different flowers and the rewards for doing so. (128c–156b)

The fruits of offering leaves, flowers, fruit, water, grass, and milk to Śańkara daily. (1156c–158b)

Ranking of various types of flowers. (158c–159)

The fruits of offering different foods and songs. (160–165b)

The fruits of offering lute music, the sound 'HUDDUN', dance, mouth music (' $mukhav\bar{a}dya$ '), and loud laughter to Śiva. (165c–169b)

The fruits of worshipping Siva for those who have not received Saiva initiation and for those who have. (169cdef)

Nandi tells the sages the significance of the *linga*, and states that this is what he heard from Hara as he related it to the goddess. (170–171)

[The *Lingodbhava* myth]

Nandi relates the famous *Lingodbhava* myth to the sages. (172–184)

The chapter concludes with the warning that prosperity is not possible for mortals who do not worship Śiva in the form of the *linga*. (185)

Chapter Two

[Temporary lingas]

The question of the sages to Nandi about the fruits of making a *linga* and installing it. (1)

The fruits of making a linga and worshipping it. (2-7)

The fruits of making a linga out of different substances, and thereupon worshipping it. (6-20b)

[Donations]

The fruits of making a Siva temple with marked bricks, and the fruits of making and worshipping the *linga* made of different metals. (20c–24b)

The fruits of planting trees and cultivating a garden. (24c–27b)

The fruits of constructing a temple and installing deities. (27c–30b)

The fruits of making a bridge, causeway, water-channel, hut, abode or pavilion, and of making donations. (30c-36)

The fruits of offering food and water. (37–39b)

The fruits of offering sesame and water to gods and ancestors. (39c-41b)

The fruits of offering the hide of a black buck. (41c–43b)

The fruits of performing $\pm r\bar{a}ddha$ rites to ancestors. (43c-45b)

The fruits of offering a lamp and cows to gods and ancestors. (45c-48)

The fruits of offering a calving cow and a bull to a Brāhmin. (49–50)

The fruits of offering a goat, a garment and a buffalo to a Brāhmin. (51–55)

The fruits of offering land, gems, clothes, and silver. (56–57)

The fruits of donating sesame seeds, gold, pearls, or gems of various kinds and quality. (58–59)

The fruits of offering treacle, milk, curds, ghee, sandalwood, agallochum, camphor, cloves etc. (60–61)

The fruits of offering a virgin girl, grains and protection to living beings. (62–63)

The fruits of offering a woman and providing a feast of lovemaking with women. (64–65)

The fruits of offering a cane-seat, a couch, fuel, shelter, straw, a blanket and food. (66–68)

The fruits of regularly offering songs, musical instruments and vehicles to the gods, and of offering a horse to Brāhmins. (69–71)

The fruits of offering an umbrella, a pair of shoes, a chariot drawn by an elephant, a horse and a bullock cart. (72–80b)

The fruits of offering a mouthful of grass $(gr\bar{a}sa)$ to cows. (80c-86b)

The fruits of letting a black bull, or any bull, free. (86c–88b)

The reward of offering various kinds of fruits. (88b–91b)

The fruits of offering tooth-cleaning sticks, fragrant betel, flowers and other fragrant substances. (91c-92)

The fruits of offering cushions made of $ku\acute{s}a$ -grass, different weapons, and vessels. (92–97)

The fruits of offering servants and maids to the gods or to Brāhmins; sea salt, piper longum, ginger, pepper, and dry ginger; and remedies for the sick. (98–100)

The fruits of offering sweet, sour, pungent, bitter, astringent and salty objects; oil, sugar or treacle, and thickened curd or buttermilk. (101–102)

The fruits of offering pearls or nacreous shells, cowrie shells, a mirror, nour-ishment, expressions of compassion or alms. (103–105)

[Hierarchy of recipients]

The magnificence of the donor and the characteristics of a true donor. (106–109)

The end of the description of the highest form of offering. (110)

The fruits of offering objects that are applied in daily use, cosmetics and food;. (111–114)

Devī's queries to Īśvara about the best recipient, and Īśvara's answer about the best types of recipients of gifts. (115–116)

Ranking of recipients. (117–122)

Chapter Three

[Sacred sites]

Devī questions Īśvara about the merits of pilgrimage. (1)

[Rivers]

A list of river names. (2–8)

The fruits of bathing in different bodies of water, the mantra that is to be recited while bathing and its fruits. (9–13b)

The fruits of bathing while remembering Agni as the womb, Viṣṇu as the seminal fluid, Brahmā as the father, and water as a form of Rudra. (13c–14)

The fruits of suicide by abandoning one's body in rivers. (15a–16b)

The fruits of always recalling a certain pilgrimage site and of entering a fire (with the intent to perish therein). (16c–18)

[The pañcāṣṭakas and other sacred sites]

A list of five groups of eight pilgrimage places, and the fruits of bathing, seeing or performing worship and dying at any of them. (19a–26)

The fruits of seeing the god in Mahālaya and drinking the water of Kedāra with and without reciting the $vidy\bar{a}mantra$. (27a–29b)

The fruits of visiting other secret $(guhy\bar{a}h)$ places and of passing away at those locations. (29c–30)

The places where Hari is said to perpetually reside, and the fruits of of passing away at those locations. (31–32)

The fruits of being a devotee of various divinities. (33a–34b)

[Observance of fasts]

The fruits of undertaking a fast until death. (34c-36)

The description of the fasts known as Sāntapana, Parāka, Atikṛcchra, Tapta-kṛcchra, Cāndrāyaṇa, Yaticāndrāyaṇa and Śiśucāndrāyaṇa observances, and the fruits of practising them. (37a–50b)

The fruits of fasting every other day, every other fortnight and every other month for a year. (50c–53)

The fruits of an observance restricting the intake of food to the night-time. (54-55)

The reward of not consuming honey and meat. (56)

The significance of celibacy. (57)

The significance of giving up all wealth. (58)

A list of unacceptable food items that are not to be offered to Brāhmins. (59)

Devī's question about the fruits of resorting to and worshipping different divinities. (60)

[Worship of different divinities]

Śiva's reply about the rewards of worshipping Brahmā, Agni, Kubera, Gaṇeśa, the Nāgas, Skanda, and Āditya—all in twelve forms (except the Nāgas)—on the first, second, third, forth, fifth, sixth and seventh days respectively of each month, starting from Mārgaśīrṣa and ending in Kārttika. (61–91)

The fruits of fasting and worshipping Śaṅkara, Devadeva, Tryambaka, Sthāṇu, Hara, Śiva, Bhava, Nīlakaṇṭha, Piṅgala, Rudra, Īśāna and Ugra, on the eighth day of each month from Mārgaśīrsa to Kārttika. (92–106b)

The fruits of fasting and worshipping twelve different forms of Mahādevī on the ninth day. (106c–113b)

The fruits of fasting and worshipping the mother goddess for nine consecutive ninth lunar days. (113c–116b)

The fruits of worshipping twelve forms of Yama on the tenth day of each month, beginning with Mārgaśiras. (116c–121b)

The fruits of worshipping twelve forms of Dharma on the eleventh day. (121c–126b)

The fruits of fasting and worshipping Keśava, Nārāyaṇa, Mādhava, Govinda, Viṣṇu, Madhusūdana, Trivikrama, Vāmana, Śrīdhara, Hṛṣīkeśa, Padmanābha and Dāmodara on the twelfth day of each month for a year. (126c–138b)

The fruits of worshipping Viṣṇu for a year and for a lifetime. (138c–141b)

The fruits of worshipping the twelve forms of Ananga on the thirteenth lunar day. (141c–145)

The fruits of worshipping $P\bar{a}rame\acute{s}vara$ in his twelve forms on the fourteenth lunar day. (146–150)

The fruits of satisfying the needs of the ancestors on the new and full moon days of Mārgaśiras. (151–154)

The names of the ancestors of the four castes. (155)

The fruits of fasting and worshipping Agni on a full moon day. (156–157)

The fruits and procedure of worshipping Prajāpati on a new moon day. (158–160b)

The fruits and procedure of worshipping Agni on the second day. (160c–163)

The procedure of worshipping Kubera on the third day; (164)

The fruits and procedure of worshipping Vighnesvara on the fourth day. (165–166)

The fruits and procedure of worshipping Nagas on the fifth day. (167–169)

The fruits and procedures of worshipping Skanda on the sixth day. (170–172)

The fruits and procedure of worshipping the Sun god [on the seventh day]. (173–174)

The fruits and procedure of worshipping Siva on the eighth day. (175–177b)

The fruits and the procedure of worshipping Devī on the ninth day. (177c–178b)

The fruits and the procedure of worshipping Yama on the tenth day. (178c–180)

The fruits and the procedure of worshipping Dharma on the eleventh day. (181–182)

The fruits and the procedure of worshipping Viṣṇu on the twelfth day. (182–185)

The fruits and the procedure of worshipping Kāmadeva on the thirteenth day. (186–188b)

The fruits and the procedure of worshipping $P\bar{a}rame\acute{s}vara$ on the fourteenth day. (188c–191b)

The injunction for honouring the ancestors on the new and full-moon days. (191c–195b)

The end of the section on worshipping gods and ancestors in Nandin's words, stating that this is what Śaṅkara taught Devī with his western face. (195c—196)

Chapter Four

[The Vaidika stream]

Devī's question about Vedic dharma to Īśvara. (1)

[Injunctions for Vedic students]

The god's description of the observance of a brahmacārin. (2–6)

[Injunctions for householders]

The duties of the householder and the distinguishing characteristics of a Brāhmin. (7-12)

The fruits of reciting the [Vedic] samhitās.13–14)

The proper form of livelihood for a householder. (15)

The significance of reciting mantras, making oblations, and the consequences of not performing the five mandatory sacrifices. (16)

The list of the five sacrifices and the five slaughter-houses of a householder. (17-19)

The defining characteristic of an expert in the Vedic dharma. (20)

The fruits of meditating while intoning the pranava. (21)

The conclusion of the observances of a householder. (22–24)

[Injunctions for forest-dwellers]

The observances of the forest-dwelling stage of life. (25)

Further injunctions for a forest-dweller. (26–31)

[Injunctions for ascetics]

The procedures for renunciation and the injunctions for an ascetic. (32a–40)

The end of the Vedic section, taught by Śiva's Southern face. (41)

[The Ādhyātmika stream]

The beginning of the $\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmika$ section, taught by Siva's Northern face. (42)

[Sāṅkhya]

The cause of everything coming into being, according to the Sāṅkhya view. (43)

The emanation of the three qualities, the twenty-five tattvas, and the distinctive features of puruṣa. (44–46)

The conditions determining whether one is content or remains bound, according to the Sāṅkhya system. (47)

The end of the section on the Sānkhya view and beginning of the section on Yoga. (48ab)

[Yoga]

The definition of a *yogin*, the right direction to face when assuming a yogic posture, the eight yogic postures, and assuming correct upper-body posture. (48c–51)

The definition of $praty\bar{a}h\bar{a}ra$, the purpose of practising meditation, the three breath-controlling exercises and their definitions. (52a–57b)

The section on the fixations $(dh\bar{a}ran\bar{a})$ of air, fire, earth and water, followed by the sections on tarka and $sam\bar{a}dhi$. (57c–67)

The result of practising contemplation. (68–69)

[The Atimārga stream]

The Atimārga stream comprises the following two schools of thought:

[Atyāśrama]

The teaching of the first type of Pāśupata practice, called the Atyāśramavrata.²⁹⁹ (70–88c)

[Lokātīta]

The teaching of the second type of Pāśupata practice, called Lokātīta.³⁰⁰ (88d–130)

Conclusion by Siva that he has taught the Atimārga in two forms with his Eastern face. (131)

Devī's query regarding the Mantramārga. (132)

Nandin's promise to pass on to sages the supreme knowledge of the Mantramārga that he heard while Śiva spoke to Devī with his fifth face, the Īśāna face. (133–137)

For more details, see our translation and the accompanying footnotes.

The reader is here referred to the translation of our text and footnotes thereon.

Language of the Niśvāsamukha

The Sanskrit employed to write the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ is often anomalous with regards to syntax and morphology, for it does not strictly to adhere to all the rules of standard Pāṇinian Sanskrit grammar. This type of slightly irregular language when used in Śaiva tantric texts is framed by the later tradition as ' $ai\acute{s}a$ ' ($i\acute{s}varaprokta$), in other words ' $that\ spoken\ by\ the\ Lord$.' The underlying supposition is that, although such language is ungrammatical from the vantage point of human grammarians such as Pāṇini, it is nonetheless authoritative, since it is said to reflect the mode of expression of Lord Śiva himself. Kṣemarāja, the 11^{th} -century Kashmirian author, for the first time, in his commentary Svacchandatantrodyota, refers to such linguistic oddities as $ai\acute{s}a.^{301}$

We find such non-standard usages of language in the Epics and $Pur\bar{n}nas$ as well. OBERLIES (2003: xxxi) observes that the "Epic language presents itself as a mixture of correct and incorrect forms, always met with side by side, within one and the same stanza." In the case of the Purāṇas, such irregularities have also been discussed, for instance with regard to the $Skandapur\bar{a}na$. The editors of the different volumes of the $Skandapur\bar{a}na^{302}$ have listed numerous non-Pāṇinian forms which they find spread throughout the text. Similar linguistic features have been studied and discussed by Salomon (1986) with regard to the $Viṣṇupur\bar{a}na$. Such irregularities in the Epics and the Purāṇas are known as $\bar{a}rṣa$ (rṣiprokta), in other words 'spoken by sages', by commentators of the Epics. Franklin Edgerton (1953) has carried out extensive research on deviant Sanskrit as it appears in Indian Buddhist Sanskrit texts. His stance towards such 'drifting forms' of Sanskrit is that these are not incorrect forms but simply belong to a different register of the language.

How does this manifest in the Niśvāsamukha? This is most easily understood by listing types of non-standard usage. Some peculiar features of the Niśvāsamukha that may be described as aiśa are equally shared by the other books of the Niśvāsatattvasaṃhitā. We have indicated such shared characteristics with reference to the deviations noted in the edition offered by GOODALL et al. (2015: 113 ff.) in the list of morphological, orthographical and grammatical deviations from standard Sanskrit below.

A number of $ai\acute{s}a$ forms in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, and indeed, in a large number of

See Goodall 1998: lxv-lxx (discussing the *Kiraṇatantra*) and Törzsök 1999: xxvi ff. (discussing the language of the *Siddhayogeśvarīmata*). Two further lists of such deviations from classical Sanskrit grammar have appeared recently in this series, namely those of Goodall et al. (2015: 113 ff.) of Kiss (2015:77–90), covering the more stridently deviant language of the *Brahmayāmala*.

³⁰² See Adriaensen, Bakker & Isaacson 1998: 26–51; Yokochi 2013: 67–72; Bakker, Biss-Chop & Yokochi 2014: 21–23; Bisschop & Yokochi 2018: 18.

³⁰³ Oberlies 2003: xxviii.

EDGERTON refers to this type of grammar as 'Buddhist hybrid Sanskrit'.

texts pertaining to the Mantramārga, 305 can be explained as resulting from the constraints of metre. Metre-dependent instances of $ai\acute{s}a$ -forms are commonly observed in several tantric texts, such as in the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, the Svacchandatantra, the $Brahmay\bar{a}mala$, different recensions of the $K\bar{a}lottara$, the $Mata\acute{n}ga$ etc.

In a few cases, we must consider the possibility that some forms are due to scribal variation, and did not originally form an intrinsic part of the composition of the text. 306 The foremost among these variations is $\bar{a}m$ used for $\bar{a}n$ in substitution of an accusative plural. For example in Niśvāsamukha 2.98, which speaks about the way to offer female and male slaves, it employs the phrase $d\bar{a}s\bar{i}d\bar{a}s\bar{a}m$ ca yo dadet, where the $\bar{a}m$ ending features in place of $\bar{a}n$. Other masculine accusative plurals with a final $anusv\bar{a}ra$ instead of the standard n, such as in 2.39c ($dev\bar{a}n\ pit\bar{r}m\ samuddisya$) and in 2.56cd ($y\bar{a}vat \ s\bar{u}ryakrt\bar{a}m \ lok\bar{a}m$), may also be similarly attributable to the same type of scribal style.³⁰⁷ We have, however, decided to keep such scribal variations in the text, rather than emending them, and have done so in deference to the editorial policies established by GOODALL et al. (2015). Since our text is based on a single manuscript, we are hesitant to apply conjecture too broadly, and limit ourselves to the most obvious and compelling instances calling for editorial intervention. Thus we attempt to present the text mostly in congruence with the way it has been transmitted in the manuscript, and only deviate from that principle when good reason impels us to emend a reading.

Here we present an exhaustive list of types of unusual linguistic forms of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, some of which are also shared by the Epics and the Purāṇas; note that we have left out deviant forms that we consider with some confidence to be scribal variations. Note also that we have not exhausted listed all instances of all types! For the discussion of individual cases see our translation and accompanying notes.

Morphology of Nominal Forms

Syncopation of a visarga

1.70d (upasannāḥ sma te vayam) and 4.41b ("naiśreyasa for "naiḥśreyasa)

Syncopation of a vowel

1.58a ($utp\bar{a}nam$ for $udap\bar{a}nam$) and 4.16 (japti for japati)³⁰⁸

This is a feature that is already fairly well-established with respect to other texts, as shown by Oberlies's (2003) analysis of the Epics.

Some such scribal variations are discussed with reference to the *Skandapurāṇa* by Adriaensen, Bakker & Isaacson (1998: 49–50). The editors of the *Skandapurāṇa* considered such readings to be traceable to the regionally coloured linguistic background of the scribes and did not form an intrinsic part of the original constitution of the text.

³⁰⁷ For more examples see 2.63a, 2.98b, 3.166a, 3.171a, 3.187a, 3.187b, 4.8b (twice), 4.18a, 4.62a, 4.62b, and 4.111b. Cf. also GOODALL et al. 2015: 133.

³⁰⁸ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 118–119 and 123.

Elongation of a vowel

1.118a, 1.162a, 3.104d and 3.105d ($g\bar{a}n\bar{a}patyam$ for $g\bar{a}napatyam$), 4.8d ($h\bar{a}$ -vanam for havanam) and 1.11d and 1.13b ($brahm\bar{a}visnumahe\acute{s}var\bar{a}h$)³⁰⁹

Prākṛtic vowel-shifts

1.79c, 1.79a, 1.83a, 1.86c, 1.91a, 1.94c, 1.99b, 2.18c, 3.86d, 3.145c, 3.150c and 3.191b $(s\bar{a}yojya \text{ for } s\bar{a}yujya)$, and 4.95a and 4.126c $(v\bar{a}ge\acute{s}y\bar{a}m \text{ for } v\bar{a}g\bar{i}\acute{s}-vary\bar{a}m)^{310}$

Prākṛtic vowel with double abstract

1.41d, 1.89d, 1.96b, 3.29a and 4.87d $(\sin s\bar{a}yojyat\bar{a}m)^{311}$

Shortening of vowels

 $3.81a (\acute{s}arkara for \acute{s}arkar\bar{a})$

Singular for plural

1.64c (tat sarvvan kathitan **tubhyam**) and 1.170c (mayāpi kathitam **tub-hyam**), ³¹² and 2.45b (śrāddhakāra**yitā** narāḥ)

Plural for singular

1.58b (pāpātmā duṣṭacetasaḥ), 1.115d (citrapaṭṭapradāyinaḥ), 2.34b (nālīmārgaprayāyinaḥ), 2.34d (maṇḍapasya ca kāriṇaḥ), 2.45b (śrād-dhakārayitā narāḥ), 2.45d (nityan dīpapradāyinaḥ), 3.89d (nirujo dīrghajīvinaḥ), 4.78b (vyaktāvyaktaikalinginaḥ), and 3.7cd (tāmrā caiva trisandhyā ca mandākinyaḥ parāḥ smṛtāḥ)

Plural for dual

1.17ab (yathā **te** sarvaśāstrāṇāṃ dīkṣājñānasya vedakau) and 4.33b (dikṣu **śrotrāṇi** vinyaset)

Instrumental for locative

4.123b $m\bar{u}rdhn\bar{a}bhibhavapañcakam^{313}$

Locative for instrumental

 $2.102 \ (gav\bar{a}dhyo \ goprap\bar{u}jane)$, and 3.76b and $3.166d \ (y\bar{a}vajj\bar{v}e \ ganottamah)$

³⁰⁹ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 119.

³¹⁰ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 127.

³¹¹ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 128.

In both cases, tubhyam refers to the sages rṣayaḥ, for which reason we would expect yuṣmab-hyam instead of tubhyam.

 $^{^{313}}$ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 124.

Nominative for locative

3.75d (caturtthy ubhayapakṣayoḥ) and 3.158c (pratipad bhojayed viprān)³¹⁴

Nominative for accusative

 $1.124d (as\bar{\imath}tikalpakotayah)$ and $3.11a (ayam mantram anusmrtya)^{315}$

Locative for dative 1.24d (tryakṣāya ṛṣisambhave), 1.31d (śive namaḥ), 1.157a (pratyahaṃ śaṅkare dadyān), three times in 2.38ab (yastu grīṣme prapān dadyāt ṭṛṣṇārtte pathike jane), 2.50b (yaḥ prayacched dvijottame), 2.53b (mahiṣīṃ yo daded dvije), 2.54d (athavāpi dvijottame), 2.75ab (gajarathan tu yo dadyād brāhmaṇāya guṇānvite), 2.100ab (dattvā nirujatāṃ yāti āture oṣadhāni ca), 2.119d (ekan dadyāt tu jñānine), 3.59c (tad brāhmaṇe na dātavyam), 3.118c (ugradaṇḍadhṛte nityam), 3.119ab (śāsitre ca namas tubhyaṃ narakādhipate namaḥ), 3.162c (dadyād viprāya śobhane), 3.175ab (aṣṭamyāṃ vṛṣabhan dadyād bhavanāmānkitaṃ dvije) and 3.181b (vṛṣan dadyād dvijottame)³¹⁶

Vocalic ri for r

1.1, 1.7 and 1.18 $(ric\bar{\imath}ka)^{317}$

Feminine $\bar{\imath}$ -stem as \bar{a} -stem 1.107c (hemamay $\bar{a}n$) and 1.109a (mṛn-may $\bar{a}m$)³¹⁸

Feminine \bar{i} stem singular treated as a $y\bar{a}$ -stem

1.14c ($devy\bar{a}y\bar{a}s$ tu tath \bar{a} $p\bar{u}rvam$) and 4.135d ($devy\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ gaditam pur \bar{a})³¹⁹

Masculine for neuter

1.147d (javāpuṣpas tathaiva ca), 4.8c (svādhyāyaṃ pratyahaḥ kuryāt), 1.10c: (taṃ śrutvā āgatāḥ sarve), 2.14 (labhen mahāntam aiśvaryam), 4.45d (bhūtastanmātrasambhavaḥ), 1.139a (tān puṣpān), 2.90a (anyāmṛtaphalā ye ca), 1.140c (saugandhikādyā jalajā), 1.155a (nīlaraktās tu ye puṣpāḥ), and 2.120cd (yasya dāne na duḥkhāni narakapretasambhavāh)³²⁰

Neuter for masculine

³¹⁴ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 125–126.

³¹⁵ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 126. Note that in addition to serving as a nominative masculine pronoun, ayam also is used as a nominative neuter pronoun.

³¹⁶ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 125.

³¹⁷ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 133.

³¹⁸ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 118.

 $^{^{319}\,\,}$ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 118.

 $^{^{320}}$ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 116.

1.21c–22b (devyāśankarasaṃvādaṃ śrutaṃ pūrvvan tvayānagha || saṃsā-rocchittikaraṇaṃ sarvajñānāmrtottamam) and 3.67c–68c: vaiśvānaraṃ jātavedaṃ hutabhugghavyavāhanam || devavaktraṃ sarvabhakṣaṃ ghṛṇī ca jagadāhakam | vibhāvasuṃ saptajihvaṃ (except hutabhuk, and ghṛṇī)³²¹

The feminine stem ap 'water' irregularly treated as an a-stem masculine in accusative singular

 $3.100c (\bar{a}pam/apam \text{ for } apah)^{322}$

Non-thematic ending

 $4.23b \ (^{\circ}homasu)^{323}$

Compounds

Member(s) in inflected form

1.21c (devyāśańkarasaṃvādam), 1.130d (bṛhatyāgastipuṣpakaiḥ), 1.164b (śaṣkulyāmodakāni), 2.21d (sphaṭirmmarakatāni), 3.33c (devyāmātarayaksesu), and 3.34b (japahomādyapūjanaih)³²⁴

Otiose letter in the middle of a compound

3.165b ($sauvarnnan n\bar{a}ma-c\bar{a}nkitam$), 3.80d ($gudak\bar{s}\bar{i}rasap\bar{a}yasaih$), and 3.82c ($gandhapu\bar{s}pasadh\bar{u}pena$)

Shortening of a vowel

4.13c (tryabdād gāyatrisiddhis tu) and 4.14a (rgyajuhsāmatharvāṇām)

Omission of a vowel

4.29d (parākcāndrāyaṇais sadā)

Lengthening of a vowel

1.178c (anānurūpam yasmād dhi) and 3.11b (kuryān nadyāvagāhanam)

Reversal of the members in a compound

1.33b $(m\bar{u}rty\bar{a}k\bar{a}\acute{s}a$ for $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\acute{s}am\bar{u}rte)$ and 3.140d $(maniratnavicitrakai\hbar$ for $vicitramaniratnakai\hbar)$

³²¹ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 116.

Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 115. Sasha Lubotsky opines that it is theoretically possible to take $\bar{a}pam/apam$ as a regular feminine accusative. For further discussion, see our translation and accompanying footnote.

³²³ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 116.

 $^{^{324}}$ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 129.

Dvandva followed by conjunction

2.11c (arccayen naranā $r\bar{i}$ $v\bar{a}$) and 4.1 (svarqāpavarqahetoś ca)³²⁵

Elision of a word

1.67c (dīpacchatraphalaṃ brūhi for dīpacchatradānaphalaṃ brūhi), 1.68b (dāsīdāsasya yat phalaṃ for dāsīdāsapradāna/dānasya yat phalaṃ)³²⁶

Morphology of the Verb

$ktv\bar{a}$ for lyap

 $2.62a (alankrtv\bar{a} tu yo dady\bar{a}t)^{327}$

$ktv\bar{a}$ for optative

3.168ab (pañcamyāṃ hemajaṃ padmaṃ **dattvā** viprāya bhojite)

Singular for dual

1.176ab (punaś caiva samāgamya stotreņa **tuṣṭuve** haram)³²⁸

Plural for dual

2.46b (tāmisramandhatāmisrau **narakā** na **bhavanti** hi)

The root vid (VII) 'to find' in the sense of vid (II) 'to know'

3.14a vindyāt for vidyāt and 4.47d vindati for vetti

Omission of final t^{329}

2.30a ($p\bar{u}jaye$ parayā bhaktyā), 2.119a (tasya dattaṃ **bhave** nantaṃ), and 4.80b (maṃte kuṇṭeti vā punaḥ)³³⁰

Perfect for optative

3.95c (aśvamedhaphalaṃ **lebhe**) and 3.11d (dehatyāge divaṃ **yayau**)

Optative for past tense

1.172b (pūrvvavrttam hi yad **bhavet**) and 1.173d (kim etac cādbhutam **bhavet**)

³²⁵ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 129.

Apart from these, there are other irregular compounds in the text, which do not fall into some specific category. These we list here: 1.54a (bhakṣyābhakṣyaparīhāram), 3.121a (yāvajjīvār-canam), 3.192d (yāvajjīvakṛtenaiva), 4.2c (homajāpī), 4.45a (budhyahaṃkāras saṃbhūtaḥ) and 4.122b (harirudradaśeśakam).

³²⁷ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 122.

³²⁸ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 134.

³²⁹ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 132.

³³⁰ Here kunteti presumably stands for kuntet iti. After omitting the final t in kuntet it becomes kunte iti. Finally, kunteti is the result of aiśa sandhi performed thereon.

Irregular optative singular

1.60b, 1.100d 2.42b, 2.52b, 2.98b and 2.104d (dadet for $dady\bar{a}t$), and 1.137b, 2.65b, 3.159d, 3.179d and 3.187b ($d\bar{a}payet$ for $dady\bar{a}t$)

Causative for simplex

2.8b ($mrd\bar{a}$ lingan tu $k\bar{a}rayet$), 2.17b (saccakena tu lingani $p\bar{a}rthiv\bar{a}ni$ tu $k\bar{a}rayet$), and 2.107c ($j\bar{i}vam$ rakṣayate yo hi)³³¹

Simplex for causative

1.91c snaped for snapayed

Gerund for infinitive

1.176d (varan **dattvā** ubhāv api)

Active for passive

 $3.76d (yo 'reayeta gaṇādhipam)^{332}$

Sandhi

Hiatus within a $p\bar{a}da$

1.176d (varan dattvā ubhāv api), 1.188c (sendrair ddevaiś ca asuraiḥ), 1.185d (ye martyā na namanti īdṛśam ajaṃ kṣemas tu teṣāṃ kutaḥ), 2.8d (labhate īpsitaṃ phalam), 333 2.20b (krīḍante aṇimādibhiḥ), 2.52b (kṛṣṇāṃ vā āvikān dadet), 2.62b (kanyāñ caiva ayācitām), 2.63d (ye cānye abhayapradāḥ), 2.74d (yo dadāti upānahau), 2.87c (nīlasyaiva alābhe tu), 2.100b (āture oṣadhāni ca), 3.123a (ahiṃsā ca adambhaś ca), 3.127d 3.128d, 3.129d, 3.130d, 3.132d and 3.134d (tu upoṣitaḥ), 4.2d (bhaikṣāśī ca amaithunī) and 4.38b (anāraṃbhī ahiṃsakaḥ) 334

so for sa when followed by a voiced consonant

2.31a and 2.33 (so hi), 3.195b (so bhavet) and 4.89 (so bhramet)³³⁵

as-stem turned into a-stem

1.44d (piśācā**psara**rāksasāh) and 1.183b (apsar**o**ragakinnaraih)

as-stem treated as an-stem

 $4.81c (paribh\bar{u}tah \ krcchratap\bar{a}) \text{ and } 4.82a (mah\bar{a}tap\bar{a} \ ca \ bhavate)$

³³¹ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 122.

³³² Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 122.

³³³ The same irregularity occurs in 2.13b and 2.17d.

³³⁴ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 134.

³³⁵ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 132.

No vrddhi when a is followed by e

1.19d (śṛṇuṣvekamanā dhunā)

Double sandhi

1.87b (yoddharet kulasaptakam), 2.90a (anyāmṛtaphalā ye ca), 3.58b (kuruteti), 4.80b (kuṇṭeti), 4.115c (svarlokan tu tatordhvan tu), 4.116a (satyaṃ caiva tatordhvaṃ tu), 4.118c (tattvasargaṃ atordhvan tu), 4.121c (gahanañ ca tatordhvan tu) and 4.121d (vigraheśaṃ tatordhvataḥ)³³⁶

Hiatus-breakers

m: 1.11a: (te dṛṣṭvā tvayi-m-āyāntā), 1.38b twice (hy aja-m- and akṣara-m-avyayaḥ), 2.46a (tāmisra-m-andhatāmisrau), 2.31cd (nadīm vaitaraṇīm caiva-m-uṣṇatoyām mahāravām) and 4.89d (sa jaṭī muṇḍa-m-eva vā)³³⁷

 $r: 1.185c (var\bar{a}rthino - r-ahar)$

Syntax

Anacoluthon

1.72–76 (starts with an optative and ends with a conditional; it is also an incomplete sentence); 1.77, 1.78–79, 2.38c–39b, 2.43c–44b, 2.56, 2.65 (start with a singular structure and end with a plural); and 3.178c–180b (starts with a singular structure and ends with a plural and also constitutes an incomplete sentence)³³⁸

Cumbersome syntax

1.87, 1.95, 1.135, 1.148–149, 1.152c–154b, 1.172–173, 1.178, 2.1, and 2.3ab, 2.33c–34b, 2.37d, 2.45c–46b, 2.56–57, 2.66, 2.65, 2.69, 2.85a–86b, 3.1, 3.69ab, 3.101c, 3.145cd, 3.148ab, 164, and 4.123ab 339

Two correlative pronouns for a single relative

2.32c–33b: setubandhan tu yah kuryāt karddame pathi dāruṇe | dharmmarā-japure so hi durggame sukhayāyy asau ||

³³⁶ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 131.

³³⁷ Cf. Goodall et al. 2015: 133.

³³⁸ Cf. GOODALL et al. 2015: 136.

³³⁹ For particular awkwardness in the syntax in these cases, see the translation and footnotes accompanying these verses.

Omission of relative and correlative pronouns

1.88 (kṣīreṇa snāpayel liṅgaṃ kṛṣṇāṣṭamicaturdaśī | yāvajjīvakṛtāt pāpān mucyate nātra saṃśayaḥ \parallel)

Omission of a relative pronoun

2.52, 2.65, 2.68, 3.100, and 3.197

Absence of case-ending for days of the fortnight

1.69d, 1.80b, 1.88b, 1.93b (kṛṣṇāṣṭamicaturddaśī), and 3.114 (labhate sarvakāmāṃs tu navamīnavamoṣitaḥ | maricaprāśanaṃ kṛtvā navamīnava yo 'rccayet ||)

Otiose repetition

1.110c-1011 (śvetaṃ raktaṃ tathā pītaṅ kṛṣṇaṃ vā cāmaran dadet ||
hemadaṇḍan tu raupyaṃ vā raityan trāpuṣam eva vā | īdṛśañ cāmaraṃ
datvā rudraloke mahīyate|), 1.130c-131 (mantrasiddhim avāpnoti bṛhatyāgastipuṣpakaiḥ || yo rccayet parameśānaṃ siddhakena samāhitaḥ | sarvakāmān
avāpnoti yo rcayed gandhapuṣpakaiḥ ||), 1.142c-143b (jayārthe damanakaṃ
syād yo rccayet parameśvaram || nirjitāḥ śatravas tena yo rccayeta
vṛṣadhvajam |), 2.90 (anyāmṛtaphalā ye ca dattvā tu subhago bhavet |
bahuputraś ca rūpāḍhyas subhagaś caiva jāyate ||), 3.73c-74 (lokapāleśvaraś
caiva yakṣendraḥ parikīrtitaḥ | abdaṃ pūjayate yas tu yakṣaṃ bhaktisamanvitaḥ || dhanadhānyasamṛddhaś ca yāvajjīvena yakṣarāṭ |), and 4.36c-36b
(tridaṇḍakuṇḍī cakrī ca naikānnādas sa bhaikṣabhuk || na tv asvam upabhuñjīta bhaikṣavṛttisamāśritaḥ |)

Ordinal instead of Cardinal Numbers

3.114b (navamī**navamo**ṣitaḥ)

Other Irregular Numbers

There are some cases of irregular formations with regards to numbers as well: 1.86c: dvirabdena for dvyabdena, 1.167a and 1.167d triṣkāla for trikāla, 2.7b viṃśabhiḥ for viṃśatibhiḥ, and 2.7c triṃśabhiḥ for triṃśatibhiḥ

Unfamiliar Words

There are also some lexical items the meaning of which we are not able to define:

- NM 1.51b apsara (denoting a flower)
- NM 1.151c ditvāksī (denoting a flower)
- NM 2.102c marjjitā (denoting a flower)

Aiśa Forms Unattested Elsewhere

Note that there are four types of irregularities in the above list of *aiśa* forms that had not been included in the overview of *aiśa* forms and usages published by GOODALL et al. (2015):

- Gerund (dattvā) for infinitive dātum: the occurrence is at 1.176d (varan dattvā ubhāv api). The context tells us that the gerund dattvā here fulfils the function of the infinitive dātum.
- Optative for past tense: In verse 1.172b (pūrvvavṛttaṃ hi yad bhavet) and 1.173d (pūrvvavṛttaṃ hi yad bhavet) the optative is used, although the contextual requires past sense.
- Perfect for optative: In 3.11d (dehatyāge divam yayau) and 3.95c (aś-vamedhaphalam lebhe), where one would expect an optative instead of the past perfect form attested to in this section.³⁴⁰
- Absence of case-endings for days of the fortnight: 1.69d, 1.80b, 1.88b, 1.93b (kṛṣṇāṣṭamicaturddaśī), and 3.114 (labhate sarvakāmāṃs tu navamīnavamoṣitaḥ | maricaprāśanaṃ kṛtvā navamīnava yo recayet ||)

Metre

The text is written in \acute{slokas} ($anus \dot{t}ubh$ metre) with the exception of the concluding verse of the first chapter, which is written in the $\acute{sardulavikridita}$ metre. The style of the \acute{slokas} is defined by an abundant use of $vipul\bar{a}s$. Goodall (1998: lxxi) observes in his discussion of metrical features of certain early Saiva tantras, such as the Kirana and the $Sv\bar{a}yambhuvas\bar{u}trasaigraha$, that they are metrically plain and scarcely make use of $vipul\bar{a}s$. The $P\bar{a}rame\acute{s}vara$, Matanga and $Par\bar{a}khya$, however, show more variation and make use of $vipul\bar{a}s$ on occasion. Metrically, the versification of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ stands out, just like the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$, when we compare it with other tantras. We even observe some use of sa- $vipul\bar{a}s$ in the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$. Instances of the sa- $vipul\bar{a}$ are expected to be rare, and their inclusion (instead of seeking to emend them away) may be questioned. Still, this form of metrical variation is also shared by the other books of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ and by the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$. Moreover, we noticed a few instances of hypermetry, hypometry and of lines that are in other ways unmetrical, which we have listed below. All of these instances deviate from the standard $pathy\bar{a}$ pattern:

• na-vipulā: 1.4c, 1.22a, 1.85a, 1.120c; 1.144c, 1.158c, 2.18a, 2.33c, 2.39a, 2.44a, 2.44c, 2.50a, 2.65a, 2.91a, 2.92c, 2.95c, 2.114a, 3.10a, 3.77a, 3.88a,

³⁴⁰ It is to be noted that our text uses simple present and optative interchangeably.

³⁴¹ See GOODALL et al. 2015: 238–239.

3.105c, 3.159a, 3.171a, 3.177a, 3.194c, 4.32c, 4.36c, 4.37a, 4.82a, 4.86c, 4.100a (with irregular preamble), 342 4.102c, 4.105c, 4.109a, 4.109c, 4.112a, 4.118a, and 4.132c

- ma-vipulā: 2.49a, 3.17a, 3.26a, 3.43c (with irregular preamble), 3.89c, 3.116c, 3.128a (with irregular preamble), 3.132a (with irregular preamble), 3.138a, 3.147c (with irregular preamble), 3.161c, 3.177c (with irregular preamble), 4.32a, 4.35c, 4.40c, 4.45a (with irregular preamble), 4.71a, 4.90c, 4.94c, and 4.99a
- bha-vipulā: 1.140c, 1.153c (with irregular preamble), 3.5c (with irregular preamble), 3.34c, 3.72a (with irregular preamble), 3.90c 3.143c, 3.151a, 4.17a, 4.27a, 4.46c, 4.69a, 4.78a (with irregular preamble), 4.81c (with irregular preamble), and 4.105c
- ra-vipulā: 3.23a, 3.31a, 3.63a, 3.64c, 3.67c, 3.68a, 3.102c, 3.103c, 3.133a, 4.6a, 4.67a, 4.75c, 4.82c, 4.85a, and 4.102a
- sa-vipulā: 1.142c, 3.31c, 3.115c, 4.103c, and 4.122a
- hypermetry: 1.37a, 2.101a, 3.6a, and 3.67a
- hypometry: 1.84c and 3.64a
- otherwise unmetrical: 1.3d, 2.49a, 2.98c, 4.100b, 4.126a (the second and the third syllables are short), 3.93a, and 3.94c (the seventh syllable is short)

We have not considered verse-quarters to have an 'irregular preamble' when all that is irregular is that the caesura (yati) is not in its expected place.

Manuscripts

Sources for the Niśvāsamukha

The Manuscript N

The principal source for the present edition is a palm-leaf manuscript transmitting the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}satattvasamhit\bar{a}$, preserved in the National Archives, Kathmandu (NAK). The NAK accession number is 1-277. The Nepal-German Manuscript Preservation Project (NGMPP) have microfilmed it and the microfilm reel number is A 41/14. The size of the leaves of the manuscript is 50 cm x 4 cm. The manuscript consists of 114 folios written in the Nepalese 'Licchavi' script. Both the recto and verso sides contain six (occasionally five³⁴³) lines. The manuscript contains two binding holes, one to the left and one to the right of the centre. The manuscript is considerably damaged in the margins. The leaves were originally numbered in letter-symbols in the right-hand margin of the versos. These leaves have been paginated again at a later stage above the first binding hole in a different hand. There is a third hand that inserted correction marks to the second run of foliation below the same binding hole.

Although the manuscript is not dated, on the basis of palæographic evidence we can assign it, with reasonable confidence, to the $9^{\rm th}$ century. Various scholars have taken note of the manuscript, on account of its antiquity, and put forward tentative dates.³⁴⁴ It has been variously dated from the middle of the $8^{\rm th}$ to the very beginning of the $10^{\rm th}$ century. Goodall et al. (2015: 103–108) have a lengthy discussion that is based on comparisons with other early Nepalese manuscripts, and in conclusion they propose the date of the manuscript to be situated somewhere between 850–900 CE, which is also the date earlier proposed by Sanderson (2006: 152). We, for our part, suspect that this is a little too early, for we think that the date of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}sa$ manuscript is probably to be placed after the date of an old Nepalese manuscript of the $Su\acute{s}rutasamhit\bar{a}$ that is dated to 878 CE. 345

The only independent witness is the old manuscript N, but there are three twentieth-century apograph copies:

Apograph W

At the time of writing of this study, W is housed in the Wellcome Institute, London, bearing the Wellcome Institute Sanskrit MS number I.33. It is written in Devanāgarī script and also covers 114 folios. Both the recto and verso sides contain five to six lines. The foliation is located in the right-hand margin of the verso, and is erroneous in a few cases. The scribe supplies raised dashes in substitution for damaged or illegible letters. This apograph is dated *vikramasamvat* 1969 (=1912).

³⁴³ F.4r,v ,100r,v and 114v.

³⁴⁴ ŚāŚTRĪ (1905), BAGCHI (1929), GOUDRIAAN & GUPTA (1981), SANDERSON (2006), GOODALL & ISAACSON (2007), and most recently GOODALL et al. (2015).

³⁴⁵ See Harimoto 2014.

CE). The colophon states that the manuscript was copied in Nepal by a certain Bauddhasevita Vajrācārya. The post-colophon runs as follows:

ida[sic] pustaka[sic] tāra[sic]patraguptākṣarapustake dṛṣṭvā nepālavāsibauddhasevitavajrācāryyena[sic] likhitam \parallel śubham \parallel |śr $\bar{\imath}$ samvat 1969 sālam iti āsādhaśukla-astamyām.

This manuscript retains more letters than apograph K succeeded in gleaning from the damaged portions of the original manuscript. This is most likely due to the fact that it was prepared at a time when the original manuscript was less damaged. The copyist appears to have remained as faithful to the original as possible, and unlike the scribe of K, avoided conjectures.

Apograph K

This apograph is preserved in the NAK and is dated Vikrama samvat 1982 (=1925 CE). The colophon states that it was prepared at the request of Rājaguru Hemarāja ŚARMA during the reign of King Tribhuvana, when Candra Śamśera served as prime minister. 346

The NGMPP reel number ascribed to the apograph is A 159/18, whereas the NAK accession number has been recorded as 5-2406. The text is written in Devanāgarī script on 114 folios and is of the following dimensions: 49 cm x 13 cm. Both the recto and verso sides contain between six to ten lines. The recto side of folio 104 is blank. The regular foliation is placed in the middle of the right-hand margin of each verso, with instances of erroneous numbering occasionally crossed out and corrected. There are three deviating foliations: in the extreme lower right-hand margin, in the extreme upper right-hand margin and in the extreme upper left-hand margin of the verso. The scribe leaves gaps for unrecovered letters, and provides dots when only a small portion of letters is visible. In damaged places, the scribe attempts to restore letters. Frequently he also provides conjectures, replacing irregular or non-Pāṇinian Sanskrit forms with their standardized counterparts, enveloping uncertain readings in parentheses. In a few cases, parenthesis-markers () enclose empty space, sometimes in conjunction with dots (···).

Apograph T

This apograph is preserved in the Tucci collection in Italy. It is written in Devanāgarī script. The manuscript number is 3.7:1 and the folio size is 48.5 cm

The post-colophon reads as follows: likhitam idam purātanajarattādapatralivitah samuddhrtya vikramābde 1982 pramite śrāvaṇaśuklaikādaśyām samāpya sāmbaśivāya samarpitam [[ka]]virājani nepālabhūmaṇḍalādhīśvare śrīpaṃcakasaṃpanne tribhuvaṇavīravikramavarmaṇi samabhiśāsati [[ca]] taddhīsacive śrītritayasampanne mahārājacandrasaṃśerajaṅgavahādūrarāṇāvarmaṇi mahāmahodaye tadīyaguruvaragururājaśrīmaddhemarājapaṇḍitamahodayānujñayā tadīyasarasvatīsadane niveśitaṃ ca bhūyāl lekhakapāṭhakayor mude | śubham | mamqalam | hariharau śaranīkaravāmi | iti śubham |

x 9.5 cm. There are 94 folios, fols. 1, 4, 5 and 98–104 of which are missing. Both the recto and verso sides generally contain five to six lines. The foliation is located in the lower right-hand margin of the verso (see Sferra 2008: 60, fn. 132). The scribe provides dots · · · to indicate either damaged portions or unreadable letters. In contradistinction to K, these are not enclosed by brackets. Since the manuscript does not have a final colophon, its date cannot be determined from a textual declaration. Nonetheless, since the scribe has recorded fewer letters in the margins, one can surmise that N had deteriorated further by the time the scribe of this apograph began the process of copying it. It is therefore likely to be slightly younger than K and W. The scribe obviously had difficulty reading N, and given the large number of scribal errors, we have not drawn upon this manuscript, instead opting to discard its testimony.

Sources for the Śivadharmasaṅgraha

Since chapters 5–9 of the $\dot{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ closely mirror the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$, we have included an edition of these chapters in an Appendix to this study. For this preliminary edition, ³⁴⁷ we have collated two Nepalese manuscripts and one printed edition. To provide a more detailed description of the sources, let us briefly introduce them at this point:

Manuscript A

This manuscript, dated to [Nepāla] Saṃvat 156 (=1035/36 CE),³⁴⁸ is stored in the premises of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Kolkata. It is a palm-leaf manuscript written in Newari script and is damaged in the margins. The manuscript number is G 4077/3. There are 324 folios, and both the recto and verso sides contain five lines. The folios measure 53 cm x 4.5 cm in size and have two binding holes. The original foliation is placed in the left-hand margin of each verso, marked in letter-symbols. A later foliation, apparently in pencil, has been added in arabic numerals both on the obverse and reverse (distinguished as 'a' and 'b') below the left-hand string-hole. The manuscript contains nine separate texts: the Śivadharmaśāstra, Śivadharmottara, Śivadharmasaigraha, Umāmaheśvarasaṃvāda, Śivopaniṣad, Uttarottaramahāsaṃvāda, Vṛṣasārasaigraha, Dharmaputrikā, and an otherwise unknown Lalitavistara. Some archaic Prākṛtic forms, such as sāyojya for sāyujya are also preserved. Since this manuscript is ancient—just short of a thousand years old—it might have been expected to be more accurate than its

We refer to our edition as 'preliminary' since there are many more sources that deserve consultation and collation. The three sources used for this preliminary draft do not suffice for a fully 'critical' edition.

³⁴⁸ For the details of the stated date, see BISSCHOP (2018: 29, 56), DE SIMINI (2017: 1–2) & MIRNIG (2016a: 63).

A. K. Acharya first identified the latter text (which, as we have mentioned before, is not to be confused with the Buddhist text of the same name).

apographs (or than younger witnesses of other transmission lines). Nevertheless, it contains numerous slips of the pen.

Manuscript C

This is another multi-text manuscript, currently housed in the University Library, Cambridge, England. It is dated to Nepal $samvat\ 256\ (=1136\ AD)$. The manuscript shelf number is MS Add. 1645, and the script is Newari. There are 247 folios, and both the recto and verso sides of it usually contain six lines. Fols. 87-131 cover the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$. The foliation is given on the verso, in letter-numerals in the left-hand margin and in Newari numerals on the right-hand margin. It contains all the texts found transmitted in Manuscript A, with the exception the Lalitavistara. This is the more reliable source of the two manuscripts collated for the present edition of the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$, as it contains markedly less scribal errors.

Printed edition

The printed edition, E_N , is in some sections accompanied by a translation into Nepali, and also infrequently furnished by the editor's commentary. It was produced by Narahari Nātha in the year 2055 VS (=1998 CE) under the editorial leadership of Viṣṇu Prasād Aryāl Ātreya and Śrīśa Thāpā. The title of the book, Paśupatimatam śivadharmaśāstram paśupatināthadarśanam, is a fancy of the editors. The tome contains the same eight texts as are included in the Cambridge manuscript C. It is poorly edited, and its text is construed on the basis of a single manuscript. The Śivadharmasaigraha is to be found here on pages 323–433. See A. K. Acharya 2009: 114–115 for more details.

³⁵⁰ The complete manuscript is accessible online at: https://cudl.lib.cam.ac.uk/view/ MS-ADD-01645/1.

Editorial Policies

Since a body of conventions for producing critical editions of the $Niśv\bar{a}sa$ corpus has already been established in the companion volume to this publication, ³⁵¹ we intend to apply the same conventions in the present edition, both for the sake of consistency and because we hold those editorial conventions in high regard. There is, however, one major difference that needs to be noted: as mentioned above, the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$ has been copied by the author(s) of the Śivadharmasaigraha—and we have decided to include its readings into our edition of the $Niśv\bar{a}samukha$. This adds an element of complexity to the constitution of the edited text of the critical edition.

We have resorted to four sources in our production of a critical edition of the *Niśvāsamukha*: N, K, W and those chapters of the *Śivadharmasaṅgraha* which we have provisionally edited (chapters 5–9). It is the readings of the text of the *Śivadharmasaṅgraha* as constituted in that provisional edition that are marked in our apparatus with the siglum '*ŚiDhaSaṅ*'.

The critically edited text appears as the main text, i.e. the running text. The apparatus is fully positive and is divided into two registers. On pages that display both registers, the upper register records testimonia and parallels and the bottom register records the variants found in the manuscripts. Each entry begins with a chapter-and-verse number in boldface (e.g. 1.97). Then follows the adopted textual segment as displayed in the main text, capped by a lemma sign]. Immediately thereafter, the siglum (or sigla) referencing the source (or sources) of this reading is (or are) displayed. At this point, a semicolon separates the preferred (and adopted) reading (to its left) from the variants (to its right). The variants to its right are again separated from each other by semicolons.

Any siglum that is followed by superscript ac indicates the reading of a source before correction ($=ante\ correctionem$) and a siglum followed by superscript pc indicates the reading of a source after correction ($=post\ correctionem$).

When a reading is unmetrical, that is recorded after the sigla denoting the source.

When a portion of text is lacunose in manuscript N, we have marked it thus: ---.

If a portion of the text is missing in all sources except manuscript K, the segment in question is enclosed in two double square brackets [[...]].

³⁵¹ GOODALL et al. 2015.

When the scribe of manuscript K has expressed his own doubt concerning a specific reading as he had found it in the exemplar from which he copied, he marked these by use of single, round brackets. We have preserved this convention only in relation to this manuscript (=K).

If a textual portion is lost in all sources except manuscript W, that segment is rendered in between two double round brackets ((...)). If the reading is lost in manuscript N but preserved in both K and W, then its rendition is enveloped between two double square and round brackets: [[((...))]]. If a section of the text has perished in all manuscripts consulted, yet is retrievable from the Sivadharmasaigraha, the relevant passage has been adopted from the edited text of the Sivadharmasaigraha and marked as such in the apparatus.

The readings adopted from the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ are by definition insecure, since we have established that the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ modifies the text considerably when borrowing passages from the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha.^{352}$ Nevertheless, we have preferred to insert the readings of the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ into the missing sections of the $Ni\acute{s}v\bar{a}samukha$ in order to allow for continuity in the unfolding of the text in a way that probably retains its basic meaning. We have, however, enclosed the reading of the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$ between double angled brackets ($\ll...\gg$) to alert the reader concerning those portions of the texts that have been supplied from the $\acute{S}ivadharmasaigraha$.

When the text is omitted in one particular source we have placed om. just before the siglum of that source; for example: om. N. Textual segments enclosed within single square brackets '[]' are supplied by us; each folio-change and line-change in the manuscript is marked and placed within the same bracket; for example [3] stands for third line in the manuscript and $[3^v]$ indicates that this is the beginning of the third folio.

When we are not certain as to whether a reading that we record has been correctly deciphered, we have indicated this by putting a question mark (?) after the reading.

When the text is judged by us to be corrupt (which often means that it seems uninterpretable to us), we have put it between crux marks: †...†.

When apographs leave long dashes, we have marked them: —. If there appear two long dashes in one of the apographs it is marked thus: — —.

Portions of text lost to damage from the original manuscript have been marked with ---, whereas gaps deliberately left by the scribes of the apographs to indicate that the text was lost or illegible to them have been marked with \sqcup .

³⁵² See p. 98 above.

Where the gap is large and there is a possibility of counting the number of letters lost, we have printed an underscore-mark to indicate a hypothetical letter slot. For example, if five letters are lost, this is presented in this way:

- - - - -.

Any ak sara(s) that are enclosed between plus-signs (+ ... +) were added later—either by the same or by a different hand.

Any *akṣara*(s) displayed between two 'x ... x' signs in the critical edition had been written in the respective manuscript and cancelled later.

The sign \otimes (puspika) stands for ornamental signs in manuscripts written before or after colophons. A list of all these symbols is provided at the start of the edition, on p. 131.

When there are scribal errors and other conspicuous mistakes, we have introduced emendations, marked with em.; 'bolder' corrections are marked conj. (conjecture). Of course, the difference is somewhat subjective. Conjectures occur when there is a complete lacuna in the text or when litte is legible. When these conjectures have been proposed by other scholars, this is mentioned in the apparatus. When an avagraha is missing in our sources, we have silently supplied it.

The verse-numeration is more or less arbitrary. In most of the text, verses are divided up into four $p\bar{a}das$. Occasionally, a verse is divided into six, either because there is a lacuna in the text (e.g. 1.17), or the context demands it (for instance because of a change of speaker).³⁵³ At times, we have felt compelled to arrange the verses differently to the four- $p\bar{a}da$ system: since the semantics of verse 1.169, for example, spread over six $p\bar{a}das$, we have chosen to format that unit accordingly, in order better to reflect the intended meaning.

The middle register contains testimonia, i.e. passages from other sources, older or younger, that display textual parallels and are sufficiently close to our text to merit our attention. The entry first lists the verse number. Testimonia are preceded by 'cf.' if the passage is sufficiently similar to the *textus criticus* of the *Niśvāsamukha*, or can contribute to its elucidation.

In our preliminary edition of the relevant chapters of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha in Appendix I, we have followed the same editorial conventions extrapolated above. Since what is signified by the use of square and round brackets does not feature in the MSS of the Śivadharmasaṅgraha, square and round brackets are not employed in the appended edition of the latter work.

For example, at 1.56.

Symbols and Abbreviations in the Apparatus

- \ll > Enclosed text is drawn from the Śivadharmasaṅgraha.
- + + Enclosed text was added later by the same or by a different hand.
- \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x} Enclosed text was first written and then cancelled later.
 - A number of letters lost in the manuscript.
 - \sqcup Gap left by the scribes of the apographs.
 - --- Text lost because of damage from the original manuscript. Long dashes in the apographs.
- † The text between these signs is corrupt (and typically uninterpretable to us).
 - ? Used when we are not certain about the reading.
 - [Enclosed text supplied by us.
 - []] Enclosed text survives only in K.
 - (()) Enclosed text survives only in W.
- [[(())]] Enclosed text survives in both K and W but is lost in N.
 - () Enclosed text is the reading of K where the scribe is not certain about the reading. The round brackets are used in the manuscript itself.
 - \otimes Ornamental signs in manuscripts written before or after colophons.

conj .	conjecture	em.	emendation
ac	before correction	pc	after correction
f.	folio	cf.	conferatur
r	recto	v	verso
om.	omit(s)	Ex conj.	based on conjecture
m.c.	metri causa (=as dictated by metre)		

Sigla of the Manuscripts and the Edition Used

- N National Archives, Kathmandu, NGMPP reel number is A 41/14, the NAK accession number is 1-277 and the size of the manuscript is 50 cm x 4 cm. The manuscript consists of 114 folios written in the Nepalese "Licchavi" script. Although the manuscript is not dated, on the basis of paleographic evidence we can assign it, with a reasonable margin of error, to 850–900 CE. Both the recto and verso sides contain six (occasionally five) lines.
- W Wellcome Institute, London: Wellcome Institute Sanskrit MS number I. 33, Devanagari script, 114 folios. This apograph is dated *vikramasamvat* 1969, which corresponds to 1912 CE. Both the recto and verso sides contain five to six lines.
- K National Archives, Kathmandu, NGMPP reel number A 159/18, NAK accession number 5-2406. The text is written in Devanagari script on 114 folios of 49 cm x 13 cm in size. Both the recto and verso sides contain six to ten lines. The recto side of folio 104 is blank. This apograph is dated to Vikrama samvat 1982 (1925 CE).
- T Apograph from the Tucci collection in Italy. It is written in Devanāgarī script. The MS number is 3:7:1 and the folio size is 48.5 cm x 9.5 cm. There are 94 folios, of which 1, 4, 5 and 98–104 are missing. Both the recto and verso sides usually contain five to six lines. We have not used this apograph as it contains many scribal errors.